THE

BRITISH CRITIC,

For APRIL, 1805.

Οὐ πάνυ γὲ ῥάδιον ἔστιν εὑρεῖν ἔργον, ἐφ' ᾧ σὺκ ἄν τις αἰτίαν ἔχοι.
XENOPHON.

It is not eaſy to find any work in which ſome perſon may not diſcover a fault.

ART. I. *The Topography of Troy and its Vicinity; illuſtrated and explained in Drawings and Deſcriptions. Dedicated, by Permiſſion, to her Grace the Ducheſs of Devonſhire. By William Gell, Eſq. of Jeſus College, M. A. F. A. S. and late Fellow of Emmanuel College, Cambridge.* Folio. 124 pp. 10l. 10s. Longman and Co. 1804.

AMONG the variety of Engliſh gentlemen who have viſited the Troad, and whoſe ſpirit of reſearch does honour to themſelves and to their country, we have heard of one only (Profeſſor Carliſle) who has countenanced the hypotheſis of Mr. Bryant, and objected to the concluſions of M. le Chevalier. How far his objections went, we have had no opportunity of learning; but it has been ſaid, that they related principally to the extent of the plain of Troy, and the impoſſibility of its containing the numerous forces aſcribed to the contending parties by the poet. If any thing had appeared from the pen of ſo learned and candid an enquirer as the Profeſſor, we ſhould have received much gratification from the peruſal, whether coinciding with our own opinions or otherwiſe; for we have always conſidered the whole as a queſtion of liberal diſcuſſion, and not of angry controverſy; and, notwithſtanding

the delivery of our own ſentiments was ſo unfortunate as to incur the ſevereſt diſpleaſure of Mr. Bryant, we continue to profeſs, when neither fear or flattery can be imputed, that we always reſpected his abilities, his learning, and integrity, however we felt ourſelves bound to diſſent from his opinions.

If we had wanted a confirmation of our ſentiments, we might have found it in the publication of Mr. Gell; for the number and accuracy of his drawings have made us as well acquainted with the plain of Troy, as with the topography of London; and the different poſitions he has ſo judiciouſly ſelected, in order to develope the whole, and to detail the particulars, form, by his delineations, one of the nobleſt monuments raiſed to the pre-eminence of the poet. It is with particular pleaſure we regard the whole as contributing to aſcertain his powers of deſcribing, painting, contraſting, and combining the objects as they occurred, above all that could be expected, after a lapſe of ſo many centuries.

Mr. Gell ſeems to have diſcarded all reference to erudition, and confines himſelf judiciouſly (in our opinion at leaſt) to the topography of the country which he has undertaken to elucidate. He proſecutes his enquiries almoſt entirely upon the authority of the poet himſelf, with caſual appeals only to Strabo, or other ancient geographers, who have trod upon the ſame ground; and by a ſtedfaſt proſecution of this ſyſtem, he avoids the diſcuſſion of many collateral queſtions which, however applicable, are not eſſential to the ſubject of enquiry.

Indiſcriminate praiſe, however, is of little value, and without detracting from the general eſtimation of the work, we may firſt remark ſome points of difficulty which ſtill remain, and others in which we differ from the author. Errors we have found but few, except the aſſigning of "etiam periere ruinæ*" to Virgil, inſtead of Lucan (p. 98) and this we attribute to inattention rather than want of information.

The greateſt difficulty is to proportion the ſpace of ground to the numbers of the armies; of this the author is fully ſenſible, and in order to obviate it has performed an eſſential ſervice, by endeavouring to extend the ſpace of encampment, better than a mile and half, towards the Aiantéum: (of this we ſhall take due notice in its proper place) but at the ſame time by abridging the diſtance from the ſea to the junction of the rivers, and reducing it to the ſtandard of Strabo, he deprives us of ground that cannot be ſpared, on the night when the Trojans lay between the Scamander and the Grecian camp;

* It occurs in Lucan, lib. ix. 969; and in the beſt editions is read with the ſame letters, "et jam periere ruinæ".

and

and when the poſitions occupied by the different armies, and the interval between them, muſt all be compreſſed within the limit of two miles.

Captain Franklin, who had viewed this ground with a ſoldier's eye, has aſſerted, that there was ample room for the encampment of 120,000 men, in the ſpace between the Sigean and Rhætean promontories. What ſuch a number requires is not eaſy to determine, except for military men; but an encampment of three miles in length, and half a mile in depth, gives more than thirty-eight ſquare yards to a man. If, again, we allow half this length and depth to the Trojan camp, we ſhould obtain an interval of near two miles between the camps; but of this we can ſpare nothing, nor ſuffer any part of it to be curtailed, by bringing the ſea within two miles of the junction of the rivers.

What changes may have taken place upon the ſuperficies of the plain in thirty centuries it is difficult to aſcertain; but it is doing ſomething for the cauſe, to point out a probability, or even poſſibility, in a caſe which has by many been thought deſperate.

Let us next conſider the ſpace of the plain between the two rivers, and eſtimate it at a medium of one mile and an half; we could then, by allowing a foot and half for each man, preſent a front to the enemy, of five thouſand two hundred and eighty men, with about two and twenty in file; if this ſhould be thought diſproportionate, we may obſerve, that the whole hundred and twenty thouſand could never be in the field together, that a foot and half is aſſigned to the cloſe rank of the Macedonian phalanx, and that the phalanx of Homer is deſcribed,

Φράξαντες δόρυ δορὶ, σάκος σάκεϊ προθελύμνῳ,
Ασπὶς ἀρ' ἀσπιδ' ἔρειδε, κόρυς κόρυν, ἀνέρα δ' ἀνήρ. N. 130.

Homer likewiſe calls his ſubdiviſions Πύργοι, or columns, drawn up very deep in file, like the Macedonian phalanx, ſuppoſed to be derived from the poet, or like the Theban Πλινθίον, which at the battle of Leuctra was one and twenty deep. Strange as this diſpoſition may appear to us at this day, ſtill when there was no artillery, and weight was the beſt means of breaking the enemy's line, there was frequent recourſe to this depth of file; and whether it was practiſed or not in the age of Homer, it affords room for the ſuppoſition, and intimates the poſſibility of the ſyſtem. In the battle of Iſſus, the forces of Darius had proportionately much leſs ſpace to act in, than the plain of Troy allows for the army of Agamemnon.

Mr. Gell has very judiciouſly taken advantage of an hypotheſis, that allows an enlargement to the camp; he has obſerved likewiſe, with ſeveral other travellers who have been in the country, that there is no other plain which admits of room for the operations of an army; and he notices the diſplacing of Tenedos by Mr. Bryant (p. 28) in order to favour his own conception of carrying Troy towards Lectum, on the Ægean ſea, inſtead of confining it to the Helleſpont.

But if the whole argument of Bryant compels us to defend Homer as an hiſtorian, while he ought to be treated with the indulgence due to a poet; we have a right to aſſume any ſuppoſition which will make him conſiſtent; and, conſidering the obſcurity which muſt attach after a revolution of ſo many ages, ſuch ſuppoſitions ought to be admitted.

The number of the forces aſſigned to Agamemnon by Thucydides, taken from the average of thoſe embarked in the largeſt ſhips and the ſmalleſt, is 120,000. Mr. Gell ſuppoſes them (p. 108) to have been originally 150,000, and reduced to 120,000 towards the latter end of the war; either number may be collected from the poet, according as we chooſe to eſtimate the proportion of the Trojans to their allies, for their whole force was 50,000*; and as we may calculate the Trojans at a third or a fourth part of the whole, we obtain 16,000 or 12,000 in round numbers, while we learn from another paſſage†, that the ſuperiority of the Greeks was more than ten to one. If then we muſt be confined to hiſtorical preciſion‡, and if, however unreaſonable, we ſubmit to this requiſition, we are bound to find ſpace for ſuch a number. We truſt Mr. Gell will pardon us for diſſenting from him in his contraction of the ſhore, and will be willing to allow us breadth as well as length for the encampment; we know his authorities for the contrary ſuppoſition, and we reſpect them; but we wiſh to render Homer conſiſtent, and we think his own authority ſuperior to that of his commentators.

We diſſent likewiſe from Mr. Gell in the poſition he has aſſumed for the tomb of Ilus, below the junction of the rivers, (p. 51) for, according to ſeveral evidences in the poet, it muſt be in the plain between the two rivers before their junction,

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* Θ. 559. † B. 128. ‡ Homer upon every occaſion ſeems deſirous to expreſs the immenſity of the Greek force, particularly on their moving out of the camp, in the ſecond book; and by his compariſon of their army, with that of all Aſia Minor, collected on the Sangarius, to oppoſe the Amazons or Scythians. Γ. 187.

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and nearer to the Scamander than the Simois; the firſt proof of this is the progreſs of Priam (Ω. 350) when he ſtops to water his horſes at the Scamander, immediately after paſſing the tomb of Ilus; he had paſſed the tomb, but he had not croſſed the ford. A ſecond inſtance is, when the Trojans are flying before Agamemnon (Λ. 166) they fled by the tomb of Ilus (μέσσον καπετιδίον) through the middle of the plain, towards the Fig-tree, the Scæan gate, and the beach; but the poſition of Paris (Λ. 370) at the tomb of Ilus, when he wounds Diomed, is deciſive; for the armies are ſtill between the rivers: and though the Trojans had rallied and faced the enemy, the Greeks had not retreated; neither do they retreat, till after the wounding of the other chiefs, when Ajax covers them in their flight (Λ. 565).

We have our doubts alſo on the tumulus Mr. Gell aſſigns to the Thrôſmos; for if we derive it with Lennep, from θρόω, to ſtrike the ground with the feet, to dance, or trample on; we ſhould rather aſſign it to the field of battle, daily trodden by the contending armies in their advance or retreat, than to any particular ſpot or tumulus. This would naturally be about the junction of the rivers, or the ford of the Scamander; and in the three paſſages * only where it occurs, it alludes evidently to the encampment of the Trojans, between the Scamander and the Grecian lines. This does not diſagree with Mr. Gell's poſition, and all we contend for is, that it is not merely a hillock or barrow, but the whole ground occupied by a camp of 50,000 men.

With this ſtatement of our objections, Mr. Gell, we conceive, will be rather pleaſed than offended, for we ſhall agree with him in almoſt every other point, and aſſure him of our warmeſt thanks for preſenting us with a clearer conception of the whole plain, and the city itſelf, than we have hitherto obtained; we coincide with him fully in regard to Thymbra, Kallicolone, the ſite of new Ilium, the village of Ilieans, and the tomb of Æſyetes, which however they have been pointed out by others, appear more diſtinctly marked by his repreſentation of them in different points of view; and all together give a conſiſtency and correctneſs to the deſcriptions of the poet, that meet the warmth of imagination with which we read them in our youth.

We could then, indeed, by the aſſiſtance of a map, have placed ourſelves on the Acropolis, and contemplated the rivers and the plain below, the Grecian camp, and the Helleſpont;

* Il. K. 160; Λ. 56; Υ. 3.

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we could have drawn imaginary lines on the right to Athos, Imbros, Tenedos, and the Ægean ſea; in front, towards Thrace and Europe; and on the left, towards Dardanus, Thymbra, Ida, and its ſummit Gargarus; and we could have aſked, how all theſe points could have correſponded, if Troy never was? If Troy was in Egypt, or at Lectum? If there never was a Trojan war to afford the poet an opportunity, or impoſe on him the neceſſity of combining all theſe relative ſituations in his deſcriptions?

But we have now added to all this, not merely a geographical reference to the objects near or diſtant, but a picture of the country taken from a variety of poſitions; and we think few will detract from the merit aſſumed by Mr. Gell, of making us as well acquainted with the different ſcenes around us, by his delineation, as a traveller, who was not a draughtſman, could have imprinted them on his own imagination.

Among the moſt acceptable of theſe plates, and moſt gratifying to our curioſity, we do not heſitate in ſelecting the view of the bridge, XVI.; the warm and cold ſources of the Scamander, XXVI. and XXVII.; the ſeveral views of Bounarbaſhi, but more particularly XXXII.; and, above all, the two extenſive ranges from the tomb of Antilochus, XIX.; and from the Acropolis, XXXVI. The laſt is of ſo much importance, that we cannot deny ourſelves the pleaſure of preſenting the deſcription of it to the reader.

"This view, which includes an angle of about one hundred and thirty-five degrees, is calculated to give a comprehenſive view of the ſcene of the Iliad, as it appears from the ſummit of the ſecond tumulus of the Acropolis, which is known by the name of Priam. In the centre of the view is ſeen the village of Bounarbaſhi, ſituated at the foot of the hill, and about one mile diſtant. To the right of this a hill riſes gently to a conſiderable elevation; after which it falls quickly to Simois, which waſhes its baſe. It ſeems probable that this was not included within the walls.

"Nearer to the obſerver is the tumulus of Hector, on the eaſt of which the hill of the Acropolis falls likewiſe in abrupt precipices to the river. The Simois is ſeen winding at the bottom of the dell, and is again caught in the plain a little to the right of Bounarbaſhi, after which its meandring courſe is not eaſily diſtinguiſhed, uniting itſelf with Xanthus, oppoſite Jeni Chehr, and diſcharging itſelf into the Helleſpont at Koume Kale. The pretty village of Atche Kevi, ſituated on the Kallicolone, is viſible above the firſt angle formed by the river, and at a ſhort diſtance to the left of it is ſeen the country of the Pagus Ilienſium. The eye carried along that range of eminences beyond Atche Kevi toward the left, will obſerve them terminating in the hill of Ilium Recens, beyond which, the vale of Thymbra and the hills of the Rhætean promontory extend to the Helleſpont. On the right, or moſt northern part of that channel, the caſtles of the Euro-

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pean and Aſiatic Dardanelles are deſcried. Beyond the Helleſpont the Thracian Cherſoneſus is ſeen with its tumuli, and the caſtle of Baron de Tott. Three ſhips, belonging to the fleet of the Captain Paſha, point out the anchorage when the wind blows from the north. Near them on the Aſiatic ſhore, is the caſtle Koum Kale, to the left of which, on the coaſt, is the tumulus of Achilles. Still proceeding to the left, the hill of Sigæum, and village of Jeni Cher are perceived; above which is the northern extremity of Imbros. The iſle Samothrace is yet more diſtant. The tumulus of Antilochus is ſeen nearly in the centre of the plate; and on the next eminence to the left is the village of Jeni Kevi. To the left of that village, the tumulus called Behick Tepe is perceived on the flat through which the new mouth of the Scamander is directed.

"The marſhes formed by that river may be caught occaſionally in a line between Behick Tepe and the village of Koum Kale; while the ſources of it will be known by the poplars on the left of Bounarbaſhi, and the tops of the willows ſeen over the firſt eminence on the left of that village.

"To the left of Behick Tepe the tumulus of Udjek, or Æſyetes, is ſeen on an eminence, and a village near it is alſo diſcernible. The little iſle of Rabbits is ſeen beyond theſe.

"The chain of eminences terminating at Udjek forms the weſtern boundary of the plain, and the Scamander waſhes its baſe. The iſle and caſtle of Tenedos are plainly and completely ſeen on the left. On the continent below its northern point, is a village, probably that called Udjek, and to the left of it, that plain which lies between Ghiele and Bounarbaſhi. The hill of Bounarbaſhi, and preſumed ſite of Troy, is diſtinguiſhed by a lighter tint than the neighbouring eminences. Above the firſt tree, near the left of the picture, the tumulus, which I have called that of Paris may be diſtinguiſhed." P. 96.

We may now add, that there ſtill remains the Plate XLI. which if our opinion were to decide, we confeſs has gone further towards verifying the fidelity of the poet, and eſtabliſhing the hiſtorical credibility of his deſcriptions, than any thing we have hitherto obtained, from the other reſpectable travellers who have contributed to our knowledge of the country. We have, in this plate, the back of the cliff on which the Acropolis is ſeated, correſponding ſo eſſentially with the debate concerning the precipitation of the horſe, as to afford an evidence of locality which may be deemed incontrovertible.

The whole ground, indeed, aſſumed by former viſitants for the poſition of the city, is ſo juſtly defined and illuſtrated by Mr. Gell, and ſo well adapted to the ſuppoſed number of inhabitants (p. 108) that ſcepticiſm itſelf muſt be forced to a concluſion. The two different characters attributed to Troy, by the poet, concur in this ſpot, and here only; for as he calls it, upon ſome occaſions, lofty and expoſed to the winds (r. 305) ſo in other inſtances, he ſays, it was built in the plain, and it was aſſailable from

from the plain (v. 217); that is, the Acropolis was on the ſummit of the hill which riſes gradually from the Scæan gate, and terminates in a precipice hanging over the ravine in which the Simois flows; while the Scæan gate itſelf is towards the plain, almoſt on a level with it, and at a point where the enemy muſt of neceſſity approach it with the beſt chance of ſucceſs.

If the reader will here refer to the ſeveral plates relative to Bounarbaſhi, the view taken upwards from that village towards the Acropolis (Pl. XXIX.) and downwards from that point to the village, the ſpot aſſigned to the Scæan gate and the Erineos; we are perſuaded that his conviction will be equal to our own. The ground plot likewiſe of the Acropolis is a correſpondent feature in the portrait; it has ſtill foundations of public buildings, fragments of ruins, and traces of fortification. Can theſe be all deluſive and imaginary? Or, if they are, can the tomb of Hector be a deception? Found where the poet places it, and formed by a pile of ſtones as he deſcribes it, while every other barrow on the plain, or in the neighbourhood, is a mound of earth? We have always built on this pile as the moſt diſtinguiſhing characteriſtic of the hiſtorical veracity of the poet that remains; we have thought it a coincidence impoſſible, if it were not true, and we are confirmed in this opinion by the concurrent teſtimony of every traveller who has viſited it ſince the firſt mention of it by Chevalier.

But it has been ſaid, that barrows are not peculiar to the Plain of Troy; that they are found in Thrace and Greece; and it might be added, that they occur alſo in Tartary, America, and in England; but it is not the exiſtence of barrows which we contend for, it is their poſition and diſtinct character, that we build on; it is the barrow of Achilles at Sigêum, of Ajax at Rhœtêum, acknowledged by hiſtorians for two thouſand years; it is the barrow of Hector ſtill found in the Acropolis raiſed with looſe ſtones, while the others are accumulations of earth only; theſe we ſay are the barrows we are bound to find, if the poet be an hiſtorian, and theſe we do find at this day. Barrows there may be in Thrace, or Greece, or in Salisbury Plain, but unleſs they will correſpond in all circumſtances as theſe do, Troy muſt ſtill be on the Helleſpont, and the credibility of the poet muſt be eſtabliſhed.

Let us now proceed to conſider the ground that Mr. Gell has allotted for the encampment of the Greeks; for if his ſyſtem could be adopted, it would remove one of the greateſt difficulties that has occurred regarding the diſpoſition of the plain, in conformity to the language of the poet. In order to increaſe the ſpace requiſite for ſo large an army, Mr. Gell propoſes to carry the ſtream of the united rivers into the ſea, through

through the marſh at Karanlik Liman, and immediately under the Aiantêum; if this were allowed, it adds more than a mile and half to the extent of the ſhore, it makes it correſpond with the ſuppoſed poſt of Achilles on the weſtern, and of Ajax on the eaſtern extremity of the line; and what is of much more importance, it carries the river beyond the limits of the camp, and effects a communication of part with part.

By the preſent iſſue of the ſtream, it muſt be ſuppoſed to divide the camp in two, or elſe to compreſs the face of the coaſt into ſo narrow compaſs as not to leave room for the encampment; it is true, that Homer expreſſes the confinement of the forces, within limits too much ſtraitened for convenience (Ξ. 35); the ſhips, he adds, were drawn up in lines one within another; but beſides the men and the ſhips, we muſt find room for tents, for a forum, for communication, and we muſt leave a ſpace between the camp and the wall, for the purpoſes of ſecurity and defence. All this can hardly be found between the preſent mouth of the river and Sigêum; and if the camp extended on both ſides the river, the communication muſt have been always inconvenient, and ſometimes interrupted; beſides that, it is a circumſtance which the poet has never noticed.

Preceding viſitors of the Troad have remarked on this difficulty, and ſuggeſted an iſſue of the river further to the eaſt; but, to the beſt of our knowledge, Mr. Gell is the firſt that has pointed out a cauſe ſufficient for the effect. He ſuppoſes, that the Scamander while it joined the Simois with all its waters, gave that river an inclination further eaſtward; but that ſince it has been diverted into the canal, the Simois meeting with no counteraction, has encroached through a long ſucceſſion of ages towards the weſt, and continues to do ſo at the preſent day. This is ſo probable a ſolution, that it may be admitted without much heſitation; we conſider it as the happieſt effort which Mr. Gell has contributed to the cauſe; and we recommend it to the conſideration of all thoſe who wiſh to ſee Homer made as conſiſtent, as he is ſublime and beautiful.

Were any one, at this hour, at leiſure to undertake a review of this controverſy, as it has ariſen from the firſt propoſal of Mr. Chevalier, to introduce the perennial ſtream of the plain as the Scamander of Homer, it would appear that a tribute of reſpect has been paid to the poet by the liberal ſpirit of Engliſh travellers, equivalent almoſt to that produced by the enthuſiaſm of his own countrymen; and, let it be added, that during the progreſs of the enquiry, the light has been increaſing upon us from its firſt dawn, to its preſent ſplendour,

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ſhining as it now does, with the addition of hiſtory, topography, ſcenery, the decoration of the pen, and of the pencil.

We were among the firſt to acknowledge the merit of Chevalier, and to hail his diſcovery; we have proceeded with the other viſitants of the Troad, and ſcrutinized the reſult of their enquiries, and we are ſatisfied that almoſt every thing has been now done for the verification of the hiſtory and the locality of the city, that a lapſe of three thouſand years, and the nature of the poem will admit.

In this opinion we are happy to find a ſupport in the concurrent ſuffrage of the learned editor of Homer; for Profeſſor Heynè (on X. 148) expreſſes his acknowledgment to M. Chevalier for his ſervices, contributing to the elucidation of the ſubject; he accedes to his hypotheſis concerning the true Scamander; to his rejection of the Scamander of Demetrius Scepſenſis, and Strabo; to his poſition for the hot and cold ſprings; to his arrangement of the flight of Hector from Achilles; and then he adds, "cæterum hæc attigêre fere omnes qui noſtra ætate aut Troadem adiere, aut de eorum narratis diſputavere; quæ exponere ſingula a conſilio alienum foret. *Ipſe vero locorum aſpectus in tabulis recentioribus propoſitus, pro optimo eſt loci commentario.*"

Now this teſtimony is of the greater value, becauſe the Profeſſor has no great reſpect for our Engliſh travellers; he has ſaid, in another place, that they engaged in theſe viſits without proper preparation for the undertaking; and if he means this of ſome caſual viſitors, we may pardon the imputation; but if he includes in it ſuch travellers as Mr. Hawkins and Mr. Gell, he detracts from merit that is, in one ſenſe, ſuperior to all that a commentator on the text can claim. We are ready to allow, that to produce a correct text is the firſt duty of an editor; but the application of the text to the objects deſcribed; the perception of the images preſented; the apprehenſion of the ſpirit, warmth, and vigour of the poem; the power of diſcrimination; the judgment, taſte, and ſenſe of what is beautiful, are qualities which many of our Engliſh travellers have poſſeſſed in an eminent degree; and enthuſiaſm, in regard to Homer, is implanted in the breaſt of every one who has had a true claſſical education in our country.

Some few reflections on the hot and cold ſprings of the Scamander, may now bring this diſcuſſion to a concluſion. The truth is, that the aſcertaining of this fact is the only circumſtance wanting to complete the hypotheſis of Chevalier; and many of our travellers have been very deſirous to find, that the two ſources have this diſtinction; it is not enough to find that there are two, that they join not far from their reſpective iſſues,

iſſues, that they are at a ſuitable diſtance from the Scæan gate, (500 yards) that the women of the village ſtill waſh at the warm ſpring, that they are perennial, that the ſtream they form is ſtill ſo narrow that a fallen tree may reach from bank to bank; all theſe are properties deſcribed in Homer, and all exiſt at preſent; but this is not ſufficient for the curious viſitor; he will ſtill ſeek for the ſingle characteriſtic which is wanting; and he will ſtill put leading queſtions to the ignorant inhabitants, in order to obtain their teſtimony to the fact*. Profeſſor Heyne is not ſo ardent in the enquiry, he is content with the concurrence of the other reſemblances enumerated, and thinks much ought to be conceded to the lapſe of time, and to the amplification of the poet. We are for leaving the fact to further enquiry, at different ſeaſons of the year; at preſent the contrary temperature of the ſprings is certainly not aſcertained. Mr. Gell, who was as deſirous of confirming it as others that have preceded him, ſpeaks modeſtly on the ſubject, and with heſitation. He found a difference by the thermometer; but imputes it to the warm ſpring being confined, and the cold ſpring ſpreading out on a larger ſurface; within the ground the cold one had the ſame temperature (p. 76) and ſo far as his teſtimony goes, the queſtion is decided; unleſs the change of ſeaſons ſhould hereafter be found ſufficient in its effects to countenance the deſcription of the poet.

We have before us another evidence, which we can add to that of Mr. Gell; and which, united with his, may juſtly be eſteemed concluſive. The queſtion was propoſed to Mr. Hawkins, what ſort of reliance there might be on the aſſertion of the inhabitants? His anſwer was this:

"The Turks at Bounarbaſhi ſpeak of all the ſprings as warm in winter, and cold in ſummer; which if they preſerve the ſame temperature throughout the year, is a very natural obſervation for peaſants to make, in a country where the winters are ſo cold, and the ſummers ſo hot; they even ſay, that the neareſt to Bounarbaſhi ſmokes in cold winter mornings; but ſuch hyperbolical expreſſions are very uſual with them.

"For my own part, I found no ſenſible difference to the touch; but to put an end to all doubt on this head, I meaſured at my laſt viſit every one of the ſprings with a thermometer, and found their temperature to vary only from $62°\frac{1}{2}$ to $63°\frac{1}{2}$, but for the moſt part to be that of 63°; the temperature of the ambient air being 59°.

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* It is remarkable that Mr. Wood, in following up the Simois, which he conceived to be the Scamander, ſearched for a hot and cold ſpring, and *found them*.

"There

"There are two groups of these springs, amounting to about forty, and one solitary spring at the distance of about fifty yards, to the eastward, which is generally considered as the warm spring; the temperature of which Mr. Choiseul found to be 22° of Reaumur, or 74° of Fahrenheit, while the others measured 8 of Reaumur, or 49 of Fahrenheit; the temperature of the atmosphere being then 9° and 10°. But that my observations are correct, and some unaccountable error has been committed by Mr. Choiseul, is proved by the medium temperature of the climate in this latitude; which according to the formula of Mayer, of Gottingen, is 62½ of Fahrenheit, and it is now pretty well ascertained by natural philosophers, that the heat of spring water at the moment it issues from the earth, is a correct index of the medium temperature.

"That travellers should have been deceived is not extraordinary, when it is considered, how many circumstances in this spot conspire to heat their imaginations; anxious, moreover, to find *every thing* conformable to Homer's description, they put leading questions to the poor rustic inhabitants at Bounarbashi, at least the questions are so put by the Turkish interpreter, who reports the answer which he knows will best please.

"Mr. de Choiseul Gouffier was at Bounarbashi on the 10th of February, my two visits were made in April and September."

We now leave this question at rest, concluding that these two accounts so nearly correspondent are definitive; without precluding, however, further enquiry, whenever the Troad may be visited again; and if such a traveller as Professor Carlisle had published his opinion on this subject, or any other connected with the controversy, we should have been happy to attend him on his progress, to have shown a deference to his judgment, or proposed our objections to his system, with all the respect due to his merit and his learning.

Of Mr. Bryant, however he was offended at our animadversions, we never spoke disrespectfully; and though he never condescended to retract the charge of *assassination*, which he brought against us in his Expostulation, we are anxious to declare, that all animosity was buried in his grave; and that we should scorn to add a word that could give offence to any of his surviving friends. His many virtues, his learning, and the vigour of his mind, supported to the last, we reverence as much as the warmest of his admirers; but his opinions, if he chose to publish them, were open for every one to admit or reject. We have little hesitation, however, in subscribing to the eulogium given by Mr. Gell (p. 57) that the learned Bryant was an authority to which almost every opinion might yield, *except what is founded on observation.*

A greater proportion of our pages has been assigned to this controversy, than the generality of our readers perhaps may think

think requiſite; but the ſubject is intereſting to every man of claſſical and liberal education; and however individuals on the continent may contend for the palm in the field of Greek literature, a general acquaintance with it, is more widely diffuſed in our country than in any other. To thoſe who have a pleaſure in this reflection, to all thoſe who have explored this ſource of pleaſure and inſtruction, we recommend the work of Mr. Gell, as one of the moſt honourable monuments which has been erected to the moſt ancient, the firſt and beſt of poets; as one of the moſt acceptable and illuſtrative works that have appeared ſince a deſire of viſiting the Troad has revived. The efforts of his pencil we conſign to the judgment of artiſts; the accuracy of his delineations we leave to be compared, and determined by future travellers; but ſo far as we, who ſit at home, can judge, his merit in both is pre-eminent; and we have no ſcruple to claſs him among thoſe in the firſt rank, who have done credit to their country, as men of talent, elegance, and diſcernment.

ART. II. *Sir Triſtrem, a Metrical Romance of the Thirteenth Century, by Thomas of Erceldoune, called The Rhymer. Edited from the Auchinleck MS. by Walter Scott, Eſq. Advocate.* Royal 8vo. pp. 368. 2l. 2s. Printed by James Ballantyne, for A. Conſtable and Co. Edinburgh, and Longman and Co. London. 1804.

IT is now univerſally admitted that hiſtory and romance have a much more intimate connection than was ſuſpected by the antiquaries of the laſt century; and that a reader who has obtained from the former a competent knowledge of the ſovereigns who ſucceſſively inherited or ſeized the throne of this country, of the battles which they won or loſt, and of the laws which they promulgated, may very reaſonably proceed to the peruſal of compoſitions confeſſedly fabulous, if from ſuch compoſitions he may hope to learn the manners, the private life, and modes of thinking of the nation at large; topics which are below the notice of the political hiſtorian, but which, in this inquiſitive age, have begun to engage a portion of public curioſity. We therefore conſider as entitled to our gratitude every editor who preſents to us, in a legible ſtate, a fragment of our early literature, becauſe every ſuch fragment may be regarded as an ancient medal, tending to

illuſtrate

illuſtrate ſome facts connected with our domeſtic annals. But though *all* theſe reliques, which ſtill remain in MS. or in black letter in our public libraries, are of value, either in this point of view, or as ſpecimens of our early language, it is obvious that ſome muſt poſſeſs peculiar claims to our attention, from ſuperior merit in the conduct of the ſtory, from a more animated and poetical ſtyle, or from a higher degree of antiquity; and it is only by a judicious ſelection of ſuch pieces that an editor can hope to allure a curſory reader to encounter a ſeries of rhymes, in a difficult and obſolete language.

The ſtory of Sir Triſtrem, whether ſolely fabulous, or founded on ſome real anecdote, was received with rapture in every part of Europe, and is alluded to by almoſt all the early poets of France, of Italy, and of England. That it is capable of being rendered no leſs intereſting to modern readers has been proved by M. de Treſſan, whoſe "Corps d'extraits des romans de chevalerie", are well known to all perſons of taſte, and who has formed from the materials of the old proſe romance one of the moſt ſeducing tales in that very amuſing collection; and the work now before us will teſtify that the ſtory in its original and ſimple ſtate, poſſeſſes beauties which amply atone for its rudeneſs of language, and of which M. de Treſſan would have been glad to avail himſelf. Mr. Scott has, very wiſely, prefixed to each of the four cantos into which the poem is now divided, a ſhort argument of its contents, from which thoſe readers who may be too indolent to ſtruggle with the difficult phraſeology of the original, will obtain a connected and circumſtantial narrative of the incidents which have immortalized the hero of Cornwall.

But it is not only by the merit of the fable that Sir Triſtrem is recommended to our notice; the author of the romance is an object of not leſs curioſity than its hero; becauſe there is reaſon to doubt whether Thomas of Erceldoune is not to be conſidered as the earlieſt known writer in the Engliſh language. Hitherto, though much light has been lately thrown on the ſubject of our literary antiquities, it has been impoſſible to trace, with any degree of preciſion, the progreſs of our poetry and language from the middle of the thirteenth to the middle of the fourteenth century, that is to ſay, during about one hundred years which preceded the earlieſt Engliſh compoſitions of Gower and Chaucer. It was indeed highly probable that much Engliſh poetry had been written in the courſe of that period, and that many of the romances to which our earlieſt writers ſo frequently allude, had become familiar to their readers by being tranſlated from the French language into our own. Dr. Hickes had noticed many poems to which, on account

account of what he thought a very ſlight deviation from the Saxon, he was induced to aſcribe a very high degree of antiquity; and Mr. Warton believed that many of thoſe anonymous romances, ſtill extant in our libraries, were tolerably faithful copies of poems ſtill more ancient; but we were not in poſſeſſion of any documents by which we could aſcertain whether this belief was well founded. The obſcurity in which this ſubject was involved has been in a great meaſure diſſipated by Mr. Scott, by means of the Auchinleck MS. contained in the Advocate's library in Edinburgh.

"This valuable record of ancient poetry", ſays he, "forms a thick quarto volume, containing 333 leaves, and 42 different pieces of poetry; ſome mere fragments, and others works of great length. The beginning of each poem has originally been adorned with an illumination, for the ſake of which the firſt leaf has, in many caſes, been torn out, and in others cut and mutilated. The MS. is written on parchment, in a diſtinct and beautiful hand, which the moſt able antiquaries are inclined to refer to the earlier part of the 13th [14th] century."

This, we know, was the opinion of the late Mr. Ritſon, than whom no man was able to eſtimate more accurately the age of a MS. and the concurrence of internal evidence ſeems to prove that it was written about the year 1330. It contains copies more or leſs perfect of, "the King of Tars"; "Amis and Amelion"; "Sir Degaré"; "the Seven Wiſe Maſters"; "Florice and Blancheflour"; "Guy of Warwick, with a continuation in a different ſtanza"; "Rembrun, Guy's ſon of Warwicke"; "Sir Beves of Hamtoun"; "Arthour and Merlin"; "Lai le Fraine"; "Roland and Ferragus"; "Otuel"; "two leaves of the Romance of Alexander"; "Sir Triſtrem"; "King Orfeo"; "Horn Child"; and a fragment of "Richard Cœur de Lion." All theſe, therefore, together with twenty-four pieces of hiſtorical, ſatirical, religious, or moral poems, were inconteſtibly compoſed between the time of Robert of Glouceſter and that of Chaucer, unleſs ſome of them, and particularly the tale of Sir Triſtrem, ſhould be referred to a ſtill earlier period.

Thomas of Erceldoune, it appears from Mr. Scott's reſearches, was a perſon of ſome rank, and muſt have died in or before the year 1299, becauſe there ſtill exiſts a deed dated in that year, by which his ſon conveyed the lands of Erceldoune to the convent of Soltra. His birth cannot, conſiſtently with the hiſtorical documents given by the editor, be placed lower than 1219; and Mr. Scott ſuppoſes, from various concurrent circumſtances, that his poem on Sir Triſtrem was compoſed about 1250, a date which appears extremely probable, and

which

which ſuppoſes this romance anterior, by twenty or twenty-five years, to the chronicle written by Robert of Glouceſter. But admitting this, which Mr. Scott appears to us to have firmly eſtabliſhed, it remains to be proved that the copy now publiſhed from a MS. of the year 1330, exhibits a faithful repreſentation of a poem compoſed in 1250, and is therefore admiſſible as a monument of our language at that early period.

In diſcuſſing this queſtion Mr. Scott has evinced great ingenuity, and has brought forward the teſtimony of a contemporary hiſtorian which ſeems to be perfectly deciſive, although the language in which the evidence is conveyed had been miſunderſtood by all former writers. Robert de Brunne had deſcribed the romance of Sir Triſtrem as being written in ſuch *quaint Engliſh* that it was utterly unintelligible to any but noble readers, and as compoſed in a ſtanza ſo complicated, that the reciters were unable to recollect ſuch a multiplicity of difficult rhymes; inſomuch that he had never heard the whole poem faithfully recited, a part of ſome ſtanza being always wanting. Now it muſt be confeſſed that the work before us exactly anſwers this deſcription. The ſtanzas conſiſt of eleven lines each, in which the firſt, third, fifth, and ſeventh rhyme together, as do the ſecond, fourth, ſixth, eighth, and tenth; and the ninth and eleventh uniformly correſpond. It is difficult to conceive a more intricate compoſition of rhymes, and few readers will peruſe this poem without feeling ſurpriſed at the ingenuity with which Mr. Scott has formed the fifteen concluding ſtanzas which complete the ſtory, without deviating from the language or verſification of his original. Beſides this, two ſtanzas are incomplete, each of them wanting two lines, though there is no hiatus in the MS.

" The immediate narrator does not aſſume the perſon of Thomas of Erceldoune, but only pretends to tell the tale upon his authority.

I was at Erceldeune,
With Tomas ſpak Y thare,
There herd Y read in roune,
Who Triſtrem gat and bare, &c.

— — — —

Thomas telles in toun
The auentors as thai were.

" A late eminent antiquary ſuggeſted, that Thomas of Erceldoune might himſelf aſſume the character of a third perſon, to add a greater appearance of weight to his own authority: it muſt be owned, however, that this fineſſe is not ſuitable to the period in which he lived. It ſeems more reaſonable to conclude, that ſome minſtrel, having acceſs to the perſon of Thomas the Rhymer, had learned, as nearly as he could,

could, the hiſtory of *Sir Triſtrem*, and, from his recitation, or perhaps after it had paſſed through ſeveral hands, the compiler of the Auchinleck MSS. committed it to writing. As Thomas certainly ſurvived 1284, betwixt thirty and forty years will, in the ſuppoſed caſe, have elapſed betwixt the time, when the minſtrel might have learned the romance, and the date of its being committed to writing; a long interval, doubtleſs, and in which many corruptions muſt have been introduced, as well as a material change in the ſtyle, which, in poetry preſerved by oral tradition, always fluctuates, in ſome degree, with the alterations in language. Accordingly, thoſe who examine attentively the ſtyle of *Sir Triſtrem*, as now publiſhed, will not find that it differs eſſentially from that of Barbour, who wrote a century after the Rhymer, although ſome traces of antiquity may ſtill be obſerved. On the other hand, if this romance be really the production of Thomas of Erceldoune, we muſt expect to diſtinguiſh the peculiarities pointed out by Robert de Brunne; that quaint Engliſh, which was difficult to compoſe: and that peculiarity of ſtanza, which no minſtrel could recite without omitting ſome part of the couplet: for, although we may allow for the introduction of more modern words, and for corruptions introduced by frequent recitation, theſe general characteriſtics of the original compoſition of Thomas muſt ſtill be viſible, or the romance which we read is none of his. Accordingly, the conſtruction of the poem, now given to the public, bears a very peculiar character. The words are chiefly thoſe of the fourteenth century, but the turn of phraſe is, either from antiquity or the affectation of the time when it was originally written, cloſe, nervous, and conciſe even to obſcurity. In every compoſition of the latter age, but more eſpecially in the popular romances, a tedious circumlocutory ſtyle is perhaps the moſt general feature. Circumſtantial to a degree of extreme minuteneſs, and diffuſe beyond the limits of patience, the minſtrels never touch upon an incident without introducing a prolix deſcription. This was a natural conſequence of the multiplication of romantic fictions. It was impoſſible for the imagination of the minſtrels to introduce the variety demanded by their audience, by the invention of new facts, for every ſtory turned on the ſame feats of chivalry; and the diſcomfiture of a gigantic champion, a lion, or a dragon, with the acquiſition of his miſtreſs's love, continued to be the ever recurring ſubject of romance, from the days of Thomas the Rhymer till the metrical tales of chivalry altogether loſt ground. The later minſtrels, therefore, prolonged and varied the deſcription of events, which were no longer new in themſelves; and it is no ſmall token of the antiquity and originality of the preſent work, that the author ſeems to rely upon the ſimple and ſhort narration of incidents, afterwards ſo hackneyed, as ſufficient in his time to ſecure the attention of the hearers. We have only to compare this mode of narration with the circuitous and diffuſe flouriſhes of the Anglo-Norman Rimeur, to decide the queſtion already agitated, which of theſe poems was the model of the other.

"It is not alone in the brevity of the narrative, but alſo in the occaſional obſcurity of the conſtruction, that the ſtyle of an age, much

older than that of Barbour, may be eaſily recognized. There is an elliptical mode of narration adopted, which rather hints at than details the ſtory, and which, to make my meaning plain by a modern compariſon, is the *Gibboniſm* of romance. Whoever attempts to make a proſe tranſlation of this poem will find, that it is poſſible to paraphraſe, but not literally to tranſlate it. In this peculiar ſtructure of ſtyle conſiſted, we may ſuppoſe, the *queint Inglis*, complained of by Robert de Brunne, which nobles and gentry alone could comprehend, and which had that annaliſt adopted, the poor and ignorant, whom in charity he laboured to inſtruct, could not have comprehended his hiſtory". P. lxxxii.

Having eſtabliſhed, on grounds which we conſider as very ſtrong, though perhaps not abſolutely unattackable, the authenticity of his MS. Mr. Scott endeavours to prove two points, neither of which, perhaps, will be conceded to him without oppoſition by our literary antiquaries, but which he ſupports by ingenious and powerful arguments. The firſt is that Thomas of Erceldoune did not tranſlate from the French, but was an original writer; the ſecond, that the Engliſh language was poliſhed, and accommodated to the purpoſes of poetry, in the lowlands of Scotland, at an earlier period than in England itſelf. We will endeavour to explain, as conciſely as poſſible, the grounds of theſe opinions.

The village of Erceldoune, now called Earlſtown, is ſituated on the river Leader, about two miles above its junction with the Tweed, that is to ſay, on the borders of the ancient Britiſh kingdom of Strathcluyd. Thomas therefore is likely to have been accuſtomed, from his childhood, to hear the recital of all the traditionary tales reſpecting Arthur, Merlin, Sir Triſtrem, and the whole tribe of Welſh heroes; and was therefore perfectly qualified to compoſe *an authentic* hiſtory of their adventures, which, though perhaps perfectly imaginary, were, during the dark ages, univerſally credited. No French writer, whether eſtabliſhed at Paris or at the courts of our Norman ſovereigns, could poſſeſs equal advantages. It might therefore be expected that they would derive their information from him, and quote him as their authority. In fact it appears that they did ſo, and Mr. Scott has given us, in an Appendix, a tranſlation of two ancient French metrical fragments of Sir Triſtrem's hiſtory, in which the author, whoſe name does not appear, appeals to *Thomas* as to an author of undoubted credit for the truth of a part of the narrative. Thus far, therefore, Mr. Scott's reaſoning is, in our opinion, concluſive; but he has himſelf quoted two paſſages, by which it appears that the hiſtory of Triſtrem was familiarly known at

Paris

Paris at a much earlier period, and he admits that Chretien de Troyes, who flouriſhed in or before 1190, had compoſed ſome work on the ſubject. Perhaps the beſt way of evading this difficulty is, to ſuppoſe that Chretien had drawn up, from the lays of ſome Breton bards, a general outline of the ſtory; that this had been ſucceſſively augmented by the addition of ſimilar materials; and that Thomas had ultimately undertaken a more complete and detailed account of the hero's life and adventures.

The ſecond opinion, though very likely to be controverted, is defended with great ingenuity by Mr. Scott, and carries with it an air of great probability. The elements of the language, now called Engliſh, are certainly taken, firſt, from various northern dialects, ultimately amalgamated under the name of Anglo-Saxon, and ſecondly, from the Norman-French. It is alſo probable, for the reaſons adduced by Mr. Ellis in his introduction to the Specimens of early Engliſh Poetry, that in England, properly ſo called, this language was ſlowly formed in the towns, where it exiſted as a kind of *lingua franca*, in which was carried on the commercial intercourſe between the victors and the vanquiſhed, while the Norman was, excluſively, the language of the court. The queſtion therefore is ſolely whether the ſame dialects were likely to be combined in Scotland, and whether the circumſtances of that country were more or leſs favourable to ſuch a combination; and, accordingly, Mr. Scott has laboured to prove that the Saxons of Bernicia, and the Picts eſtabliſhed beyond the Friths of Forth and Tay, being of a nearly ſimilar northern origin, muſt have ſpoken a language almoſt exactly reſembling that of the Anglo-Saxons of South Britain, and that they are in fact uniformly deſignated by hiſtorians, and in all public acts as *Angli*; the various Gaelic tribes of Scotland being comprehended under the name of Scoti. He obſerves that during the eleventh century great numbers of Norman adventurers were invited into Scotland, and inveſted with large poſſeſſions; that many others were expelled from England by the tyranny of William the Conqueror; that the influence of faſhion could not fail to aſſiſt the gradual admixture of French and Anglo-Saxon words; and that a language ſimilar to that which was produced in the ſouth by mercantile intercourſe, originated in Scotland at the courts of the ſovereigns, and became the uſual dialect of the polite and the powerful. We have not room to ſtate the numerous collateral arguments by which Mr. Scott has endeavoured to confirm his opinion, nor the hiſtorical authorities by which it is farther ſupported, but muſt content ourſelves

with obſerving, that we have not hitherto ſeen any theory more probable than that which is propoſed by the editor of Sir Triſtrem.

If the preceding points be conceded, it ſeems difficult to deny that we were indebted to Scottiſh minſtrels for the earlieſt and moſt ſpirited ſpecimens of our ancient poetry. Indeed it ſeems evident that the *minſtrels* of the Engliſh court, and even thoſe entertained at the caſtles of our nobles, muſt have been principally Normans, till the reign of Edward III. and we doubt whether the municipal officers of our principal towns were ſufficiently rich, or ſufficiently fond of poetry, to become very eminent patrons of the muſes; whereas the Scottiſh court, formed on the Norman model, could not fail to be provided with a competent number of thoſe ſons of merriment, without whom the moſt ſplendid feſtival would have wanted one of its principal attractions.

The reader will perceive that Mr. Scott has given, under the name and in the form of an introduction to Sir Triſtrem, the materials which he had collected for a diſſertation on Scottiſh poetry, which the public was led to expect from a ſort of promiſe which he had given in his "Minſtrelſy of the Border."

It would be uſeleſs to preſent to our readers any extracts from a poem, the merit of which can only be fairly eſtimated by thoſe who ſhall read it throughout with conſiderable attention, and which is publiſhed rather as a document of importance to the hiſtory of our literature, than as a tale intended to amuſe the careleſs reader. In amuſement, however, this volume is by no means defective. The arguments which, as we have already obſerved, are prefixed to the ſeveral cantos, preſent very conciſely, yet clearly, a moſt entertaining and curious ſtory; the notes, which occupy more than 100 cloſely printed pages, are drawn up with that peculiar felicity which is found in all Mr. Scott's hiſtorical illuſtrations, and are equally calculated to pleaſe the learned and the unlearned. Upon the whole, we only lament that the edition of this very elegant and intereſting work has been confined to ſo few copies, as to prevent the poſſibility of its obtaining a circulation at all proportioned to its merit.

ART. III. *Principes Elémentaires de Musique, arrêtés par les Membres du Conservatoire, pour servir à l'étude dans cet établissement. Première Partie Livre I.* Paris. An VIII. Prix 15 Francs. Folio. 49 pp. Engraved Plates.

UNIVERSAL dominion over the realms of science, as well as of politics, is the professed object of revolutionary Frenchmen. They have been, indeed, more successful in the latter design, than they will probably be in the former; at least the specimen here given of their abilities, to reduce the rules of music to obedience, does not prophecy in their favour.

We are induced to commence our new plan of noticing foreign publications occasionally, in the body of our Review, by the present work; with the hope of chastising the excessive vanity, and extreme ignorance of these pretenders. They combine, it is true, in the list of compilers on the present occasion, names of several nations, yet it will be easily shown, that they are all inadequate to the task they have undertaken. Not, we must confess, that their work is insufficient to educate *French* musicians; but, when a national establishment appoints a committee of its *best* members to draw up a code of laws for the instruction of youth, we expect something better than a performance like the present.

By a previous Advertisement we are informed, that the French Music School was founded 18 Brumaire, An 2, (8th of November, 1793) under the title of *National Institute of Music*; this was changed 16 Thermidor, An 7, (3d August, 1799) to *Conservatory of Music*, which it still retains.

At the sitting (12 Fructidor, An 2) of the general assembly of artists, a commission, consisting chiefly of composers, was formed to draw up these Elementary Principles; the list contains the names of Cherubini, Langlé, La Cepede, Le Sueur, Catel, Martini, Mehul, and Gossec.

We are concerned to see the talents of Framery and Gretry not employed on the present occasion. Framery has distinguished himself by his critical remarks on the errors of Rousseau, in the Encyclopédie Methodique, and the Essais of Gretry are well known to all lovers of musical literature.

This commission of *eight* presented their labours, 19 Floreal, An 7, and at the general assembly, 4 Prairial, An 7, (8th and 20th of May, 1799) the work was unanimously voted classical. Hence the director of the Conservatory, Sarette, orders these

principles

principles to be taught in the claſſes of the eſtabliſhment. In a note to this page, a compliment is paid to Citoyen La Cepede, of the National Inſtitute, for uniting his talents to thoſe of the committee.

Such are the circumſtances which uſher this production to the world; and the names of Cherubini, Langlè, Martini, and Goſſec, are ſuch as to authorize no inconſiderable expectations of their united efforts.

On a ſlight peruſal of the thirteen articles, into which the book is divided, but to which neither table of contents, nor any kind of index is given, we are at a loſs to diſcover any great analytical talents, or even common literary labour in their claſſification. The firſt ſix articles extend no further than 1, Sound; 2, Muſic; 3, Notes; 4, Staff; 5, Letters; and, 6, Cleffs: the ſubſequent five treat of 7, Intervals; 8, the word Tone; 9, Modes; 10, Modulation; 11, Genera. Then at the 37th page it is thought neceſſary juſt to notice, 12, Meaſure; and, to conclude (from p. 43 to 49) with, 13, the other Signs.

If, however, the *matter* were important and correct, we ſhould not differ about the *form* under which it appeared; but we are, in juſtice, forced to accuſe the editors of three unpardonable defects, want of *preciſion*, want of *hiſtorical* veracity, and want of *theoretical* knowledge.

P. 1. Article 1. *Of Sound.*

Sound is divided into two ſpecies, irrational, or inappreciable, termed noiſe (bruit) and rational, or appreciable, termed muſic.

In a note to this article, appreciable ſounds are divided into three claſſes, grave, mediate, and acute; theſe are again ſubdivided into their correſpondent vocal arrangements of baſe, baritone, tenor, counter tenor, ſecond and firſt treble.

P. 2. Article 11. *Of Muſic.*

This, like the former, is a very ſhort article; and as a ſpecimen of the general ſtyle of the work, we ſhall preſent it entire.

"Muſic is the art of combining ſounds. By their elevation (or pitch) duration and ſucceſſion differently combined, they form tunes (des chants) hence ariſes melody.

"By their ſimultaneous reunion they produce chords, hence ariſes harmony.

"Melody and harmony compoſe the whole of muſic, of which, ſound is conſequently the only principle."

Article

Article III. *Of the Characters which represent Sounds, or of Musical Notes.*

The seven different forms of notes are given from the semibreve to the half demisemiquaver (quadruple croche) and the ancient characters of the large, the long, and the breve, are mentioned in a note.

P. 3. Article IV. *Of the Position of the Notes, and of the Staff* (Portée).

The notes are reckoned grave, mediate, or acute, from their position on the staff. The space below the staff, and the two first lines, include the four grave sounds.

The second space, and the two following lines, contain four of the mediate class.

The fourth space, fifth line, and the space above, represent the three acute sounds of each voice.

By the help of supplementary lines, four subgrave, and four superacute sounds are obtained. Here we find (p. 4) a striking instance of defect in *precision*. The acute sounds are first enumerated (p. 3) as only *three*, in the following arrangement they are termed *four*. This, perhaps, may be thought a remark too slight; but when so many ingenious men pretend to compile a standard work, we expect more than usual accuracy.

P. 4. Art. V. To make amends for the brevity of the preceding articles, this occupies three whole pages, and is divided into two sections.

Sect. I. *Of the Seven Notes of Music, their Names, and the Order assigned to them.*

The series of seven musical notes is termed thus: ut, re, mi, fa, sol, la, si, ut.

This succession was first (they assert) called the diatonic scale, and afterwards the diatonic gamut.

P. 5. Section II. *Composition and Division of the Gamut, and of the Interval of the Tone and Semitone.*

These authors now forget the unity of their design, and choose to begin this Section by way of question and answer.

"What is an interval?

"An interval in music is the difference between one sound and another, more acute or more grave.

"What is a tone?

"The interval between ut and re, &c. &c. ascending, and between re and ut, &c. &c. descending.

" This interval is named diatonic.
" What is a ſemitone?
" The leaſt of all the intervals in the diatonic gamut."

After this *definition*, they inform us, that there are two ſorts of ſemitones, the diatonic and the chromatic.

The diatonic ſemitone is between mi and fa, &c. aſcending, and between fa and mi deſcending.

In theſe definitions nothing *preciſe* is contained; ſince the diſtance or interval between ut and re, or between ſi and ut, is wholly independent of the aſcent or deſcent of the melody, and ought to have been more theoretically explained in a ſcientific publication.

Suremain de Miſſery could have afforded them a very uſeful explanation, which might at leaſt have been inſerted in a note. See his *Theorie Acouſtico-Muſicale*, p. 105, Paris, 1793, where he not only gives the true mathematical analyſis of the tone and ſemitone, but alſo a practical explication of them by an appeal to the ear alone.

It is aſſerted, by dividing the gamut into two fourths, that they are both *perfectly* equal. This might be admitted, if the reference had been made to the temperament of keyed inſtruments.

Ut	Re	Mi	Fa		Sol	La	Si	Ut.
Tone	Tone	Semitone			Tone	Tone	Semitone.	

But ſurely theſe great theoriſts muſt know, that the intervals are not equally diſtributed; and that the hypotheſis of Des Cartes and Rameau, by which *ut* to *re* is reckoned as a minor tone (like the real one from *ſol* to *la*) is evidently falſe.

P. 7. To elucidate further the nature and relation of the tone and ſemitone, the authors have entertained their ſtudents with three examples, indicative of the progreſs of muſical notation, and of their own profound acquaintance with muſical antiquities.

I. Gamut on a ſtaff of eight lines, primarily invented *(produit)* by Guido of Arezzo.

In this the eight notes are each placed on a line, and no uſe whatever is made of the ſpaces.

II. Gamut on a ſtaff, reduced to four lines, by Guido.

In this the ſpaces are uſed, and the notes alternately placed on them with the lines.

III. Gamut on the ſtaff of five lines, invented (produit) by Jean de Muris.

Where, except in their own inventive faculties, theſe learned writers have found theſe curious hiſtorical documents, we are at a loſs to imagine.

Kircher

Kircher and Galilei have indeed given examples of muſic upon eight lines (ſee the Muſurgia, vol. i. p. 213, and Sir I. Hawkins, vol. i. p. 429); but they both contend, that this notation was prior to the time of Guido.

Dr. Burney has alſo very clearly ſhown (vol. ii. p. 87) that Guido probably firſt uſed the ſpaces intermixed with lines; but as for the reduction of the eight lines to four lines, and the placing of *ut* on the loweſt, no ſuch improvement was ever before attributed to this *Lord of the Muſical Manor*. Dr. B. ii. 72.

But the moſt ridiculous circumſtance of all this hiſtorical information is, that they give Guido the honour of inventing, not merely the hexachord, but the preſent ſyſtem of the diatonic octave, and alſo the uſe of the ſyllable *ſi*, in the year 1022; when even Rouſſeau proves, that Jean de Muris, in 1330, was ignorant of it. Another curious ſpecimen of their accuracy, conſiſts in naming the firſt line *ut*, in both the pretended ſcales of Guido, and in the third of De Muris, without inſerting any clef whatever, to ſhow that they conſider the firſt line to be C. Every muſical writer in England, Germany, and Italy, is apprized that Guido placed his gamma or G, on the loweſt line; but they ſeem to know better in France. Such is the ſcience of the Muſical Conſervatory, illuminated by the aſſiſtance of the Inſtitute.

P. 7. Article VI. *Of the Clefs, and their Utility.*

After deciding poſitively, that the firſt line is always *ut*, when no clef appears, it ſeems rather unneceſſary to place a character to name notes which are already named without it.

This article, however, makes ſome amends for the preceding defect, by being well arranged; and it details the nature of the three clefs, *fa*, *ut*, and *ſol*, with ſome ſucceſs. It is obſerved in a note (p. 11) that an organ open pipe, of 97 centimetres, or three feet, will ſound the F of the baſe clef.

P. 12. Article VII. *Concerning Degrees and Intervals.*

The glaring want of preciſion in defining their technical terms is here very evident, for the authors contradict themſelves in the ſpace of a few lines.

Section 1. *Of Degrees, Conjoint, and Diſjoint.*

"A degree is the interval, comprehended between two notes, which follow each other immediately in the diatonic gamut. Conſequently *ut* is the beginning of the firſt degree, and *re* terminates the firſt,

firſt, and begins the ſecond, &c. There are degrees conjoint, and degrees disjoint.

" The firſt are found between every line and ſpace adjoining. The laſt are thoſe which, inſtead of following each other immediately, leave an interval between, more or leſs great."

The inconſiſtency and contradiction here ſhown, by firſt defining the term degree, in the ſenſe of *conjoint* only, and then extending its ſignification to make it ſerve for ſkip or leap, as *disjoint*, is unworthy of a ſcientific and profeſſional undertaking like the preſent; and, indeed, ſince the word degree, taken in theſe ſenſes, becomes perfectly the ſame as interval, it may be conſidered as wholly uſeleſs in the new French ſyſtem.

Section II. *Of Intervals.*

We arrive here at a little more accuracy; and, in the next,

Section III. *Of Natural Intervals of every Species.*

We gain a tolerable inſight into the different kinds of intervals, and the major with the minor 2nds and 3rds, 6ths and 7ths, are explained; the 4th and 5ths, although not liable to the ſame diſtinctions, may become ſuperfluous or diminiſhed.

P. 16. In reckoning intervals (including the 8ve, and excluding the uniſon or prime) they are divided into ſeven concords and ſix diſcords.

Conſonant Intervals.

Major 3rd, Minor 3rd } Imperfect.
Fourth indirect, Fifth direct } Perfect.
Major 6th, Minor 6th } Imperfect.
Unaltered 8ve, Perfect.

Diſſonant Intervals.

Major 2nd, Minor 2nd } Diſſonances in harmony, but not in melody.
Superfluous 4th, aſcending
Diminiſhed 5th, deſcending
Major 7th, aſcending
Minor 7th, deſcending } Diſſonance.

All this claſſification is correct, and ſome of the hints uſeful. A ſmall impropriety occurs in reſpect of the ſecond not being *diſſonant* in melody; but as this depends on the definition of the term diſſonant, we ſhall not be unneceſſarily ſevere upon it.

Thus

Thus far only are we at preſent able to examine this production of the French Conſervatory; in our concluding remarks, we apprehend ſimilar cenſure will be required; but we will not prejudge what we have as yet only curſorily peruſed.

(To be concluded in our next.)

ART. IV. *A general Syſtem of Nature, through the Three grand Kingdoms of Animals, Vegetables, and Minerals: ſyſtematically divided into their ſeveral Claſſes, Orders, Genera, Species, and Varieties, with their Habitations, Manners, Economy, Structure, and Peculiarities. Tranſlated from Gmelin's laſt Edition of the celebrated Syſtema Naturæ, by Sir Charles Linné, amended and enlarged by the Improvements and Diſcoveries of later Naturaliſts and Societies, with appropriate Copper-Plates. By William Turton, M. D. Author of the Medical Gloſſary. Vol. I. to IV.* (Animals).* 8vo. 3170 pp. with Three Plates. 2l. 10s. Lackington, &c. 1802–1804.

THE neceſſity of ſyſtematic arrangement in inveſtigating any conſiderable number of individuals, has been always felt; and many authors have, for a long time, been occupied in this very uſeful deſign. Among theſe indefatigable writers, none has attained a higher rank than the juſtly celebrated Linnæus, whoſe ineſtimable work is now exhibited to our countrymen in an Engliſh form.

The *Syſtema Naturæ* of Linnæus paſſed through twelve editions, under the care of the author himſelf; and, from a rough ſketch of a few folio pages (for the firſt edition was nothing more) it grew to the magnitude of five octavo volumes.

The twelfth edition was publiſhed in 1766; ſince which time, numerous additions having, by the induſtry of his followers, been made to the genera and ſpecies there enumerated, Profeſſor Gmelin thought proper to give a new edition, with theſe additions. Had this been executed with a due degree of care, the ſcientific world would have been under great obligations to him; but the caſe was far otherwiſe, for Gmelin ſeems, throughout his whole edition, to have been more anxious to

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* The firſt volume which begins the botanical part, is alſo publiſhed, and the whole is to be completed in ſeven volumes.

augment

augment the ſize of the work, than to improve upon the original. Hence, it has happened, that notwithſtanding ſeveral new genera and ſpecies are added to thoſe mentioned in the twelfth edition of Linnæus, yet every well-informed naturaliſt prefers that edition, with all its imperfections, to the enlarged one of Gmelin. The removal of the *Amphibia Nantes* to the claſs of fiſhes, and the new arrangement of the mineral kingdom may, indeed, be conſidered as improvements; theſe, however, are more than counterbalanced, by the multiplication and imperfect diſcrimination of the new ſpecies, the unneceſſary alteration which he has made in the vegetable kingdom, and by his having incorporated the ſubtleties of the Fabrician entomology with the plain and ſimple ſyſtem of Linnæus.

Beſides theſe faults in Gmelin's edition, many others are well known to exiſt in it. It was, in fact, a mere commercial ſpeculation, and was executed without any regard to accuracy. Additions were collected from every quarter, and inſerted without examination, and without any care to blend their characters and differences into thoſe of the genera and ſpecies which had already a place in the ſyſtem.

It is evident, therefore, that Dr. Turton has manifeſted no ſmall want of judgment, in chooſing ſo wretched an edition of the Syſtema Naturæ for the ground-work of his tranſlation. He profeſſes, in his Preface (the flimſy contexture and ſtyle of which are ſufficiently diſguſting) to amend and enlarge the edition of Gmelin, by the improvements and diſcoveries of later naturaliſts, particularly noticing Dr. Latham in the ornithological department, Fabricius in entomology, and Wildenow in reſpect to the ſpecies of plants. To theſe ſources of information, no objection can be made; yet it is eaſy to obſerve, in many places, the rude and unſkilful manner in which the materials, taken from them, are incorporated with the voluminous and inaccurate compilation of the German Profeſſor.

To make room for the above alterations, Dr. Turton has, in the three firſt volumes, generally omitted the ſynonymes and references to the figures. In the fourth volume, however, which comprizes the claſs of worms, the references to the figures are preſerved. We allow, indeed, that (on account of the difficulty of deſcribing the ſpecies of this claſs) they are here particulary neceſſary, and cannot well be omitted; yet ſurely it would have been far more ſyſtematical, to have retained them uniformly in all the claſſes.

Independent of the bad choice of the lateſt, but moſt incorrect edition, inſtead of the beſt, and the unſkilful mode in which the newly diſcovered genera and ſpecies are added, we have

have to regret the manner in which the tranſlation itſelf has been executed. Dr. Turton ſeems to have been by no means aware of the reſponſibility which muſt of neceſſity attach to the tranſlator of Linnæus's Syſtema Naturæ. Such a work, if well executed, would be of claſſical authority in natural hiſtory; and, therefore, it required more than ordinary attention in reſpect to the propriety and neatneſs (perhaps it would not be too much to add elegance) of the language. The general nature of the work, which embraces ſeveral different branches of natural hiſtory, renders the taſk of tranſlating it a difficult one; few individuals being perfectly acquainted with the moſt proper terms already uſed by the Engliſh writers on each ſeparate branch; yet this knowledge was ſurely eſſential to a due execution of the tranſlation.

Of this difficulty, Dr. Turton, however, ſeems to have been totally inſenſible; and yet we cannot, after attentively peruſing theſe four volumes, flatter him ſo far as to ſay, that this inſenſibility did, in any meaſure, ariſe from a well-founded confidence in his own powers, for we have ſeldom peruſed a worſe tranſlation. The Engliſh tranſlators of Linnæus, not only in botany, but alſo in the other branches of natural hiſtory, are juſtly charged with a moſt wanton and unjuſtifiable abuſe of language; and the preſent tranſlator treads cloſely in their footſteps. Injudiciouſly copying the conciſe diction of the Latin language, he has, like his predeceſſors, endeavoured to tranſlate each Linnæan term by a ſingle word, ſimilar in its form to the original, notwithſtanding cuſtom has, in many caſes, occaſioned ſuch Engliſh word to aſſume a ſignification widely different from its Latin original. But, in thoſe caſes where the idea to be preſented would have required ſeveral words to expreſs it, he has not ſcrupled to adopt the Latin word, with the mere change of its termination.

This highly reprehenſible manner of tranſlating, which is almoſt peculiar to works on natural hiſtory, and which would be deſervedly laughed at, if cuſtom had not, in ſome meaſure, reconciled it to our ears, is ſo injurious to the purity and elegance of our language, that we think it our duty, at all times, to expreſs our unequivocal cenſure of a conduct which can originate only in indolence or in ignorance. That ſuch a mode of tranſlation is not neceſſary, we are certain, from the example of the French and Germans; and ſurely the ſaving of a few words, is dearly purchaſed at the expence of introducing an immenſe number of barbarous primitives, and of admitting derivatives, in direct oppoſition to every analogy of the ſpeech of our anceſtors.

The

The preſent four volumes contain, as we have already ſaid, only the animal kingdom, divided, as by Linnæus himſelf, into ſix claſſes, here called, I. Mammalia; II. Birds; III. Amphibia; IV. Fiſhes; V. Inſects; and, VI. Worms. Of theſe claſſes, the four firſt, on account of the few ſpecies they contain, are compriſed in the firſt volume; the fifth claſs (Inſects) occupies the ſecond and third volume; and the ſixth (Worms) is contained in the fourth volume. The whole ſyſtem will, as we are informed, take up ſeven volumes; in the laſt of which is to be given, not only a general explanatory dictionary, of ſuch terms as are peculiarly appropriate to the ſcience, but alſo a biographical account of the original author, with his portrait. Throughout the whole, Dr. Turton has marked the Britiſh ſpecies with an aſteriſk; but, as to the emendations which, from the title, we were led to expect, they are ſo few, and ſo trifling, as to be almoſt intirely inviſible; on the other hand, many even of the moſt glaring faults of Gmelin are left intirely uncorrected, and ſeveral errors are added by the tranſlator.

In the *Mammalia*, Dr. Turton has retained the union of the genus Noctilio with Veſpertilio; on account, it is probable, of the ſimilar habit of thoſe animals, although they are ſo diſtinct in reſpect to the teeth; on which latter character, the diviſion of this claſs into orders, and even into genera, is chiefly founded; we are not certain of the propriety of this procedure. In *Mammalia Bruta*, there is added to the genera which were enumerated in the edition of Gmelin, not only Sukoiyro, but alſo that ſingular genus Platypus, better known by Blumenbach's more expreſſive name of Ornithorhynchus. As a ſpecimen of this part of the tranſlation, we ſhall extract the deſcription of the cat, being a well-known animal.

"MAMMALIA. FERÆ. Felis.

**Catus.* Tail annulate.

1. Tail annulate with brown; body with blackiſh ſtripes, 3 dorſal ones longitudinal, lateral ones ſpiral. *Wild Cat.*
2. Leſs; hair ſhorter, thicker. *Domeſtic Cat.*
3. Hair longer, ſilvery, ſilky, longeſt on the neck. *Angora Cat.*
4. Variegated with black, white, and orange. *Tortoiſe-ſhell Cat.*
5. Hair blue-grey. *Blue Cat.*
6. A red ſtripe from the head down the back. *Red Cat.*
7. Ears pendulous; hair ſhining, variegated with black and yellow. *Chineſe Cat.*
8. Reddiſh-yellow; head long, ſnout ſharp; legs ſhort, claws weak; ears round, flat. *Yellow Cat.*
9. Tail twiſted. *Madagaſcar Cat.*

"Inhabits

" Inhabits woods of *Europe* and *Aſia:* domeſticated every where; when tranquil purrs, moving the tail; when irritated is very active, climbs, ſpits, emits a fetid odour; eyes ſhine at night, the pupil in the day a perpendicular line, by night large, round; walks with its claws drawn in; drinks ſparingly; urine of the male corroſive; breath fetid; buries its excrements; makes a horrid mewling in its amours; mews after and plays with its kittens; wags its tail when looking after prey; the lion of mice, birds, and the ſmaller quadrupeds; peaceful among its tribe; eats fleſh and fiſh, refuſes hot or ſalted things, and vegetables; waſhes behind its ears before a ſtorm; back electric in the dark; when thrown up, falls on its feet; is not infeſted with fleas; gravid 63 days, brings 3—9 young, blind 9 days; delights in marum, cat-mint, and valerian." Vol. i. p. 49.

Here the error of Linnæus, reſpecting cats not being infeſted with fleas, and ſeveral others, equally obvious, are retained even by the preſent tranſlator. In the claſs of birds, the names of the orders are left untranſlated, although that of the claſs is rendered into Engliſh; by which means, a ſtrange confuſion of language is introduced. To the ſecond order of this claſs, there are added Scythrops, Galbula, and Momotus, which were not in Gmelin. A plate is alſo annexed to this claſs, to explain ſome of the terms; but Dr. Turton has forgotten to explain figure 12. We obſerve alſo, that in the ſynopſis of the generic characters prefixed to this claſs, the birds of the diviſion A, of the order Picæ, are characterized as having " feet formed for perching"; and thoſe of the diviſion C, " feet formed for walking". But afterwards, in the detailed characters of the ſeveral genera, thoſe of the former diviſion (A) are ſaid to have " feet formed for walking", or ſometimes literally, " feet walkers"; and thoſe of the latter diviſion (C) " feet greſſorial"; this confuſion is not to be found in the original. Our common poultry are deſcribed as follows:

" BIRDS. GALLINÆ. Phaſianus.

" *Gallus.* Comb on the crown and 2 wattles on the chin compreſſed; ears naked; tail compreſſed, erected; feathers of the neck linear, long, membranaceous at the tips. *Wild Cock.*

2. Comb on the crown and 2 wattles on the chin compreſſed; ears naked; tail compreſſed, erected; feathers of the neck linear, long. *Common Cock.*

3. Crown with a thick downy creſt. *Creſted Cock.*

4. Feet

4. Feet 5-toed, 2 behind. *Darking Cock.*
5. All the feathers turned back. *Friſzled Cock.*
6. Rump and tail-feathers 0. *Perſian Cock.*
7. Legs very ſhort. *Dwarf Cock.*
8. Shanks feathered, the feathers behind long. *Bantam Cock.*
9. Legs feathered down to the toes. *Rough-legged Cock.*
10. Variegated with beautiful colours. *Turkiſh Cock.*
11. Body twice as large. *Paduan Cock.*
12. Creſt, wattles and chin black. *Negro Cock.*
13. Hen with the crown tuberous. *Crowned Hen.*
14. Crown Horned. *Horned Cock.*
15. Feathers reſembling hairs. *Silk Cock.*

" Inhabits, in a wild ſtate, *India;* 3 feet 4 inches long; is domeſticated every where, and ſubject to innumerable varieties in colour and ſize; feeds on grains and worms, which it ſcrapes from the ground and ſhews the chicken; is very courageous, proud, watchful and ſalacious, and claps its wings before it ſings or crows; has a piercing ſight, and never fails to cry in a peculiar note at the ſight of a bird of prey. The hen, if ſhe have plenty of food, water, gravel, and a warm neſt, will lay through the whole year, and after laying makes a loud clucking which is anſwered by all the hens within hearing; will not ſit if ſhe be immerſed in cold water; is hurt by elder-berries, and ſubject to lice, which are deſtroyed by pepper.

Body, when wild, leſs than the common cock; *comb* large, indented, ſhining red; *temples* and *line* from the creſt to the eyes naked, fleſh-colour; behind the *eyes* a clay-colour ſpot, of the ſhape of a man's nail, and covered with ſhort feathers; feathers of the reſt of the *head* and *neck* long, narrow, grey at the baſe, black in the middle and tipt with white; feathers of the upper part of the *body* greyiſh, with a white and a black ſtreak; *breaſt* reddiſh; greater *wing-coverts* reddiſh-cheſnut, with tranſverſe black and white ſtreaks; *tail-coverts* gloſſy-violet; middle *tail-feathers* long, falcate; *ſpur* large, curved.

Female without the comb and wattles; *head* and *neck* grey; *cheeks* and *chin* whitiſh; *body* more duſky and varied with brown, grey, and rufous; *ſpur* 0." P. 445.

To the order Serpents, of the claſs Amphibia, is added the genus Acrochordus. The habits of moſt of the animals of this claſs, render them ſuch ſtrangers to mankind, that it is totally needleſs to give any ſpecimens of the execution of it.

A plate

A plate is annexed to the claſs of fiſhes, to explain the diviſion of it into orders. To the apodal fiſhes, Dr. Turton has added, from various ſources, Gymnothorax and Stylephorus; to the thoracic, Trachichthys and Lonchiurus. He has alſo adopted the improvement of ſeparating Priſtis from Squalus, and of removing the Myxine glutinoſa of Linnæus from the claſs of worms, to the order of chondropterygious fiſhes, by the name of Gaſtrobranchus.

A few genera only are added to the claſs of inſects as enumerated by Gmelin. In the order of Coleoptra, there is added Synodendron, and Tetratoma; in the Hymenoptera, is alſo added Ammophila, ſeparated from Sphex, by Mr. Kirby. To this claſs there is annexed a plate, which, like the other two, is very inſufficient for the purpoſe of illuſtration. As a ſpecimen of this claſs, we ſhall extract the account of the lobſter and crawfiſh; which will alſo ſerve to ſhow how difficult it frequently is to diſtinguiſh the ſeveral ſpecies of a genus by words, though they may be readily diſtinguiſhed by thoſe to whom they are familiar.

"INSECTS. APTERA Cancer.

*Gammarus. Thorax ſmooth: proboſcis toothed at the ſides with a double tooth at the baſe above.
Brit. Zool. iv. *tab.* 10. *fig.* 21. *Baſter.* 2. *tab.* 1.
Inhabits moſt rocky ſhores, and is the ſpecies moſt in repute for its delicious meat.

*Aſtacus. Thorax ſmooth: proboſcis toothed at the ſides with a ſingle tooth at the baſe each ſide. *Crawfiſh.*
Brit. Zool. iv. *tab.* 15. *fig.* 27. *Degeer.* 7. *t.* 20. *f.* 1.
Inhabits *Rivers*, and lodges itſelf in holes made in the clayey banks: fleſh excellent.
Hands large tuberculate: 4 firſt *legs* chelate."

Vol. iii. p. 755.

In the claſs of worms, Onchidium and Derris (both from the Linnæan Tranſactions) are added to the Molluſca. In the twelfth edition of the Syſtema Naturæ, an error, probably of the preſs, crept into the name of the genus Aplyſia (ſo called from a name found in Pliny) which was quoted in the body of the work, Laplyſia, although in the ſynopſis of the genera it was properly ſpelt. This miſtake was corrected by Gmelin in his edition, and therefore we cannot conceive by what ſtrange concurrence of circumſtances, or unfortunate propenſity to error, the name Laplyſia again appears, and is conſtantly uſed, in the preſent tranſlation. We obſerve a ſimilar fault in the Teſtacea, for there Dr. Turton writes Phloas, in lieu of Pholas; this we ſhould have conceived to be an error

of the preſs, if we had not conſtantly found it ſpelt in the ſame erroneous manner. In the general remarks on the genus Sepia (or Cuttle-fiſh) which remarks are an addition by Dr. Turton, he informs us, that " the bone in the back is converted into that uſeful article of ſtationary, called pounce". Here Dr. Turton has not only fallen into that vulgar error which diſgraces the front of ſo many ſhops, by writing ſtationary for ſtationery; but has alſo given very erroneous information. Every ſchool-boy knows that pounce can only be made of ſome reſinous ſubſtance. The real uſes of this ſingular bone as a dentifrice, and as a poliſhing powder in ſeveral arts, are entirely paſſed over in ſilence. Neither is the uſe made of it by gold and ſilver-ſmiths, in lieu of ſand, to form their moulds, taken any notice of; nor that mentioned by French authors, who ſay, that it is uſed, under the name of *biſcuit de mer*, to hang in bird cages, that the birds may ſharpen their beaks upon it.

It remains to exhibit ſome ſpecimen of the execution of this laſt claſs. The Venus Dione was particularly deſcribed by Linnæus, as an example from which the mode of deſcribing bivalve ſhells might be derived. As the terms uſed by him were improper to be uſed in a popular language, and eſpecially in a book which might occaſionally be referred to by the female ſex, it became neceſſary to change them, and adopt a new language. This taſk Dr. Turton has performed as follows.

" WORMS. TESTACEA. Venus, A.

Dione. Shell tranſverſely grooved, with a double row of ſpines on the flattened ſide.

Shaw Natur Miſcell. tab. 163. *Barbut. tab.* 4. *fig.* 9.
Liſter tab. 307. *Bonan. Muſ. kirch.* 2. *fig.* 121.
Rumpf. Muſ. tab. 48. *fig.* 4. *Olear. Muſ.* 29. *fig.* 4.
Petiv. Gaz. tab. 31. *fig.* 9. *Gualt. teſt. t.* 76. *f.* D.
Leſſer teſt. fig. 134. *Argenville conc. tab.* 21. *fig.* I.
Murr. fund. teſt. tab. 2. *fig.* 11, 16, 17.
Knorr. Vergn. 1. *tab.* 4. *fig.* 3, 4.
Knorr. delic. nat. ſel. tab. B. *fig.* 9.
Born Muſ. Cæs. Vind. Teſt. p. 57. *vign. fig.* 2.
Chemn. conch. 6. *tab.* 27. *fig.* 271—273.
Schræt. Litterat. 1. *fig.* 1, 2.

Inhabits the *American Ocean*, and is extremely rare and valuable.

Shell equivalve, ſomewhat heart-ſhaped, rounded, pale pink, a little gibbous before and behind, and marked with tranſverſe parallel ſharpened ribs; within ſmooth, white and arched or vaulted under the knobs: *hinge* of the left valve 3-toothed, the teeth approximate and diſtinct from the ſocket, the middle one compreſſed and ſmaller, the lateral ones divergent, thickiſh and

and obtuſe; the other valve with 2 approximate compreſſed teeth between 2 hollows: *margin* or rim very obtuſe and entire: *beaks* recurved, rather obtuſe and glabrous at the tip, with an ovate fleſh-colour depreſſion behind them: the flattened ſide fleſh colour, with a pale border and yellowiſh ſtripe reaching half way from the beaks, obliquely ſtriate, and furniſhed with a row of ſpines each ſide originating from every ſecond or third rib of the ſhell, the ſpines incurved, growing gradually longer and grooved beneath; within theſe and near the beaks is another row of 5 ſmaller ſpines each ſide." Vol. iv. p. 217.

In the above deſcription, we cannot avoid proteſting againſt the barbarous word "glabrous", which Dr. Turton conſtantly uſes inſtead of ſmooth. Many other words equally objectionable occur. Such as "repand", iv. 441; "pulvinate", iv. 129, which is beſides erroneouſly printed "palvinate"; "nayant", in various places, which, although uſed in heraldry, is ſurely not ſo proper a word in natural hiſtory as natant. We alſo find, that Dr. Turton ſometimes tranſlates the ſame term different ways; thus, emarginatus is ſometimes rendered "notched", at other times "emarginate": again, margaritaceus is (iv. 297) rendered "margaritaceous"; whereas in the next page but one, it is "perlaceous", neither of which terms, in our opinion, is well choſen.

Typographical errors abound in every part; ſome few of theſe are corrected, or rather pretended to be corrected, in the liſts of the errata. But the truth is, that no great reliance can be placed on theſe liſts, ſince even the very firſt erratum pointed out has an erroneous reference.

A good tranſlation of Linnæus's Syſtema Naturæ, with proper additions and emendations, might certainly be of ſervice to naturaliſts who do not underſtand the original language; theſe however are ſo few, that it will ſcarcely be worth while for any other tranſlator to undertake the work; we are, therefore, the more ſorry that Dr. Turton has not executed the taſk in a better manner. We confeſs, however, that the difficulties attending the tranſlation of works of this kind are ſo great, that we almoſt deſpair of ever ſeeing them overcome.

ART. V. *Ancient and Modern Malta: containing a Deſcription of the Ports and Cities of the Iſlands of Malta and Goza, together with the Monuments of Antiquity ſtill remaining, the different Governments to which they have been ſubjected, their Trade and Finances: as alſo, the Hiſtory of the Knights of St. John of Jeruſalem, from their firſt Eſtabliſhment in Malta till the Beginning of the 19th Century: with a particular Account of the Events which preceded and attended its Capture by the French and Conqueſt by the Engliſh. By Louis de Boiſgelin, Knight of Malta. With an Appendix, containing a number of authentic State-Papers and other Documents, a Chart of the Iſlands, Views, Portraits, Antiques, &c. In Three Volumes.* 4to. 4l. 4s. G. and J. Robinſon. 1804.

SO much as Malta has of late been an object of curioſity, it is rather ſurpriſing that the public has not been gratified with ſome convenient and cheap manual, deſcriptive of its ancient hiſtory, natural ſingularities, and actual condition. The preſent work is upon an enlarged ſcale, and ſo expenſive, as not to be within the reach of ordinary purchaſers. Yet, perhaps, it will not altogether ſatisfy the curious enquirer. We will, however, as briefly as we can, repreſent what may be expected from it. The firſt volume is divided into two books; of which the former gives an account of Ancient and Modern Malta, the authors who have written concerning Malta, its ſituation, deſcription of the Malteſe, the fertility of the ſoil, its climate, and natural productions. The ſecond book explains the conſtitution and finances of the order of Malta, from its original foundation to the preſent times. The authors who have written on the ſubject of Malta are ſo very numerous, that they would of themſelves make an enormous library. This author has enumerated them in twenty-three different diviſions, and to the extent of twenty-ſix quarto pages. He repreſents the following as being more particularly uſeful, Abela, Hoüel, Malthe par un Voyageur François, Mayer, Recherches Hiſtoriques et Politiques ſur Malthe, Boſio, Paciandi, Sebaſtian Paoli, Vertot, Ranſijat, and l'Art de verifier les dates. The following is as entertaining a ſpecimen as can be given of the firſt volume.

"The Malteſe, though continually ſubject to different nations, have always preſerved their original character; which ſufficiently proves their deſcent, and, at the ſame time, ſhews that they have mixed very little with any of the people who have by turns governed their country.

"Their

"Their countenances announce an African origin. They are ſhort, ſtrong, plump, with curled hair, flat noſes, turned up lips, and the colour of their ſkins is the ſame as that of the inhabitants of the ſtates of Barbary: their language is alſo ſo nearly the ſame, that they perfectly underſtand each other.

"It is, perhaps, as much owing to the ſituation of Malta, as to the different ſtrangers who have viſited and conquered the iſland, that the Malteſe have become very induſtrious, active, faithful, economical, courageous, and the beſt ſailors in the Mediterranean. But, notwithſtanding theſe good qualities, they ſtill retain ſome of the defects generally attributed to the Africans; and are mercenary, paſſionate, jealous, vindictive, and addicted to thieving. They have likewiſe ſometimes recalled the idea of the *Punica Fides*. They are fantaſtical and ſuperſtitious in the higheſt degree, but their ignorance does not unfit them for the cultivation of the arts.

"The Malteſe habit (excepting that of the eccleſiaſtics, lawyers, and tradeſpeople, who dreſs in the French ſtyle, and are few compared to the people at large), conſiſts of a large cotton ſhirt, and a waiſtcoat likewiſe very large, with ſilver, and ſometimes gold, buttons; to theſe are added a *caban* and cloak reaching rather below the ſmall of the back, and a very long girdle twiſted ſeveral times round the waiſt, in which they conſtantly carry a knife in a ſheath: they alſo wear long and full trowſers, with a ſort of ſhoe called *korch*; but they do not often make uſe of the latter, having almoſt always both legs and feet entirely naked. This *korch* is merely a leathern ſole, with ſtrings to faſten it round the leg. They never wear hats, but blue, red, white, or ſtriped caps. People of eaſy fortune uſually carry fans in their hands, and wear blue or green glaſs ſpectacles; for ſuch is the exceſſive heat occaſioned by the reverberation of the rays of the ſun from the ſtones, and the white tufa, that, notwithſtanding this precaution, there are many blind people; indeed, the greateſt number have very weak eyes.

"The Malteſe are remarkably ſober; a clove of garlic, or an onion, anchovies dipped in oil, and ſalt-fiſh, being their uſual diet. On great feſtivals, they eat pork. Hogs are very common in towns and villages; many of theſe animals belong to the church and to different convents, and walk about the ſtreets both night and day, where they pick up ſufficient nouriſhment. They are ſeldom moleſted, and never ſtolen.

"There are no people in the world more attached to their country than the Malteſe; and their conſtant hope is to end their days in what they dignify with the title of *Fiore del Mondo* (The Flower of the World).

"The Malteſe women are little, and have beautiful hands and feet. They have fine black eyes, though they ſometimes appear to ſquint, owing to their always looking out of the ſame eye; half of the face being covered with a ſort of veil made of black ſilk, called *faldetta*, which they twiſt about very gracefully, and arrange with much elegance. The women, even of the higheſt rank, unlike their huſbands, conſtantly preſerve their *coſtume*; and any one who ſhould adopt the French faſhion would make herſelf very ridiculous. They are extremely fond of gold and ſilver ornaments, and it is not uncommon to ſee even the peaſants loaded with trinkets of thoſe two metals. Their

dreſs

dreſs conſiſts of a ſhort ſhift, called *kmis*; of a linen or cotton under petticoat, termed *Ideil;* of a coloured upper one, which is generally blue, open on one ſide, called *gkeſuira;* and of a corſet with ſleeves, termed *ſidria.* The back part of their neck-kerchief is faſtened up to the head; and their hair, which is ſmooth, well powdered and pomatumed, is dreſſed in front in the form of a ſugar-loaf, much in the ſtyle of the *toupées à la Grêque*, ſo long worn by the men. They ornament their necks with gold and ſilver chains; ſometimes, indeed, with necklaces of precious ſtones: their arms are loaded with bracelets, and their ear-rings are in general more expenſive than elegant. Their ſhoe-buckles are extremely large, and always either of ſolid gold or ſilver.

" The Malteſe baroneſſes live very retired, and in the moſt exemplary manner. The morals of the women in the country retain all their original purity; and if libertiniſm is to be remarked any where, it is among thoſe women who inhabit cities, and who, having no other reſource but obtaining ſome office for their relations, are ſometimes obliged to diſpoſe of their favours in order to procure it. To complete the portrait of the inhabitants of Malta, and to give a ſtill better idea of their character, it will be neceſſary to enter into ſome particulars relative to their ancient and modern cuſtoms and ceremonies.

" The Malteſe, either from a wiſh to imitate the Oriental manners, the ſeverity of which they had witneſſed in the Arabs, or from the example of the jealous Spaniards, formerly kept their wives in the ſtricteſt retirement. The prudent inhabitants of the country conſtantly repeated to their children, " that women ſhould never appear but twice in public; the day they were married, and when they were buried". They were therefore always employed within doors, and never went out, except at a very early hour to church, when they were entirely covered by a long and large mantle. This *coſtume* came originally from Sicily, and reached from the head to the feet: the forehead and eyes alone were viſible; but the upper part of the mantle was cut in a different manner for unmarried women, the former wearing it round and the latter in a pointed form.

" Some time afterwards, when the fair ſex was allowed a proper degree of liberty, and the deſire of pleaſing encreaſed with the opportunity of inſpiring admiration, the women threw off this heavy garment, which not only kept them concealed, but was extremely unpleaſant: they however conſtantly wore veils; which, they conceived, decency required to be black, and the only colour they could with propriety wear when abſent from their own homes.

" Marriages in Malta were always entirely arranged by the parents; who conſulted their own intereſt, and the ſuitableneſs of the connection, without attending to the inclinations of their children. The articles of the contract ſettled, and the portion aſcertained, the young man ſent his intended bride a preſent conſiſting of certain fiſh ornamented with garlands of ribband, and in the mouth of the fineſt amongſt them a ring. The firſt interview was then fixed to take place in preſence of the parents and their particular friends, who were regaled with ſweetmeats and other refreſhments; but juſt before this meeting, the

the two mothers of the young people retired either into an arbour in the garden or ſome ſeparate apartment, where they prepared a mixture of aniſeed, aromatic plants, ſalt, and honey, with which they rubbed the bride's lips, with the idea of rendering her affable and prudent. She was then conducted to the room where her future huſband waited her arrival; who preſented her a ring on which were engraved two hands united, the emblem of *mutual faith*, together with bracelets, necklaces, and a gold chain, ſhe giving him in her turn a handkerchief trimmed with lace and bows of ribband.

" On the day appointed for the celebration of the nuptials, the moſt reſpectable perſonages among the huſband's relations threw a white and very fine veil over the bride's head; who was extremely ornamented, and wore a velvet *ſimarre*, in which the other relations made certain rents for the purpoſe of affixing ſmall golden ſhells. They then proceeded to church for the *baddara* or ceremony, attended by performers on different inſtruments, and ſingers who ſang ſtanzas in praiſe of the young couple. Theſe muſicians were preceded by three men: the firſt bearing on his head a baſin of white earth, varniſhed and painted in araſbeſque, of a yellow colour; this was filled with freſh *briccet* (a kind of cake), on the largeſt of which were placed two ſmall figures: he alſo wore a ſcarf, with a round cake called *collora* hanging from it. The ſecond carried a baſket filled with ſugar-plums and candied nuts, which one of the relations diſtributed among the acquaintances he happened to meet: in the middle of the baſket was a handkerchief folded in the form of a pyramid, and ornamented with the images of the Virgin, Saint Joſeph, and the Infant Jeſus. The third was conſtantly employed in burning perfumes. The bride and bridegroom followed, under a canopy of crimſon velvet feſtooned, carried by four of the principal perſons who attended the wedding; and the reſt of the relations cloſed the proceſſion. This cuſtom of the canopy continued in uſe till 1668, when it was forbidden by the biſhop.

" The arrival of the proceſſion at the church was announced by the ringing of bells; and the prieſt was preſented with a baſin containing a cake, a handkerchief, and two bottles of wine, the uſual fee on ſuch occaſions. The bleſſing given, they returned from church in the ſame order as they went. The whole of the ceremony generally laſted four hours. On the entry of the new married couple into the houſe, a ſervant from one of the windows threw a few handfuls of grain and ſome ſmall money on their heads. There was a reigning prejudice in thoſe days among the Malteſe, which made them believe that if the wife on her return from church put her foot firſt on the threſhold of the door, ſhe would undoubtedly govern her huſband; now with ſuch an idea, it is not very likely the bridegroom ſhould be polite enough to give place to his bride on this occaſion.

" The nuptial feaſt took place immediately afterwards; but the bride either ate in a ſeparate apartment, or in a corner of the hall, which was properly prepared and covered with linen cloth to conceal her from public view. The repaſt over, ſhe was ſeated next her huſband, and drank out of the ſame cup.

" At a village wedding, the company danced during the feaſt; each dancer throwing a piece of money to the fidlers, and each gueſt contributing a fowl to the repaſt.

" Till

" Till the beginning of the eighteenth century, all balls given in town on wedding days were in the Spaniſh ſtyle, and every one danced with caſtenets in their hands.

" The bride always paſſed the firſt week in her father's houſe; after which ſhe was received with much pomp by her huſband, whoſe relations gave a great feaſt and a ball.

" The Malteſe never married during the month of May; indeed, they carried their prejudice ſo far, that they would not even cut out a coat, thinking it impoſſible that any thing begun at that time could ever ſucceed. This ſuperſtition calls to remembrance the manner in which the Romans divided the year into fortunate and unfortunate days; and it is impoſſible not to perceive a great reſemblance between the old Malteſe cuſtoms, and thoſe of various ancient nations." Vol. i. p. 77.

The ſecond and third volumes might as well have been comprized in one, nor does it obviouſly appear why they were not, as both would not in ſubſtance exceed the firſt. The ſecond volume opens with a chronological and hiſtorical table of the Grand Maſters; after which ſucceeds an account of the Order from its firſt eſtabliſhment, to the foundation of the city La Valetta. The ſecond book of this volume comprehends an hiſtorical detail from the foundation of La Valetta to the election of the Grand Maſter Rohan, in 1775. The celebrated ſiege of Malta by the Turks, under Solyman, is the moſt honourable epoch in its hiſtory, and is related in this volume with much ſpirit and preciſion. The following account of their firſt retreat, and effectual diſcomfiture, contains, to us, ſome new particulars.

" No ſooner had the baſhaw entered his veſſel, than he felt aſhamed of the ſudden panic with which he had been ſeized. Trembling for his head, and dreading the reproaches of the ſultan for retreating before ſo feeble an enemy, he called a council of war, when a majority of only two voted for a new diſembarkation. The baſhaw, incenſed againſt himſelf for having ſo ſuddenly raiſed the ſiege, courageouſly vowed either to conquer or die; chooſing rather to loſe his life at the head of his few remaining troops, than, by returning unſucceſsfully into his country, to riſk periſhing by the hand of an executioner. He therefore immediately landed; but his troops, fatigued and haraſſed by ſo long and bloody a ſiege, were very unwilling to follow his example; and it became neceſſary to tear them (if I may ſo expreſs myſelf) by force from their veſſels. The Turks marched towards the City Notable, where they hoped to fall in with the Chriſtians; whilſt the viceroy of Algiers remained on the ſea-ſhore, with fifteen hundred men, in order to facilitate their retreat and re-embarkation in caſe of failure. La Valette acquainted the newly arrived Chriſtian troops with the motions of the enemy; and it was taken into conſideration, whether they ſhould advance towards the infidels, or wait their arrival in the advantageous ſituation in which they had intrenched themſelves. The

"The general adviſed the latter plan; but the majority voted for the attack. The Malteſe battalion therefore immediately began their march towards the enemy; whom La Sande, an officer of diſtinguiſhed reputation, at the head of the knights, ſuddenly and briſkly charged; whilſt Aſcagne de la Come, commander of the newly-arrived troops, whoſe opinion had been given in favour of the defenſive plan, ſufficiently proved that thoſe who are ſometimes accuſed of too much circumſpection in council, are not the leaſt valiant in the field; for he took the field with the knights, and undauntedly expoſed himſelf to the greateſt dangers.

"The victory was [not] long deciding; for the Turkiſh ſoldiers, who had been ſo forcibly dragged into action, ſo far from exerting themſelves to obtain the victory, could ſcarcely be prevailed upon to engage; and they had no ſooner diſcharged one volley of ſmall-arms, than, being vigorouſly preſſed by the Malteſe battalion, they ſhamefully betook themſelves to flight. The baſhaw, thus abandoned, and fearing being taken by the enemy, was under the cruel neceſſity, notwithſtanding his exemplary courage, of following his cowardly troops. Twice he fell from his horſe, and twice he muſt have fallen into the hands of the Chriſtians, had not ſome of his officers, at the riſk of their lives or their liberty, ſteadily aſſiſted him, and given him time to re-ſeat himſelf in his ſaddle. The knights purſued the infidels with the greateſt ſpirit; but they were ſo inebriated with ſucceſs, that they no longer preſerved either ranks or order, and threw off their cuiraſſes, to enable them more ſpeedily to overtake the fugitives. On arriving at the place where the Turks were to embark, the viceroy of Algiers, who was in ambuſcade behind the point of a rock, ruſhed out at the head of his troops, and finding the knights and Chriſtian ſoldiers in diſorder, fell upon them with great fury, killed ſeveral, and took others priſoners. Fortunately for the Chriſtians, De Sande arrived with ſome battalions during the combat. Theſe ruſhed headlong among the Algerines, carrying all before them, and releaſed the priſoners. The Turks, thus ſituated, had no other reſource than to embark as ſpeedily as poſſible. A new kind of battle took place; and, in order to favour the retreat of the Turks, Piali, their admiral, kept up a conſtant fire from his ſhips. But the fury of the Chriſtian ſoldiers was ſo great, that they purſued the fugitives into the ſea, and killed a great number of them.

"The admiral having embarked the poor remains of his own formidable army, ſet ſail and proceeded towards Sicily. The viceroy ſeeing the fleet from the top of the caſtle of Syracuſe, learnt, without the information of a courier, the happy effects of the aſſiſtance he had afforded, and the raiſing of the ſiege.

"La Valette no ſooner perceived the firſt embarkation of the infidels, than he inſtantly filled up their trenches, and deſtroyed all their works. Every one of the inhabitants, men, women, children, and even the knights, were indiſcriminately employed night and day on this occaſion; and that with the pleaſure and diſpatch of priſoners who wiſh to eſcape from captivity. In the mean time the grand-maſter placed a garriſon in Fort St. Elmo; and the Turks had the grief and mortification to ſee, from their ſhips, the enſigns of St. John waving in the wind.

"Thus

"Thus ended this memorable ſiege, in which twenty five thouſand infidels were ſlain; and two hundred and ſixty knights, together with more than ſeven thouſand ſoldiers and inhabitants, fell victims to the Chriſtian cauſe. In fact, at the moment when the Turks departed, there ſcarcely remained ſix hundred effective men, including the knights in the Burgh; and even the greateſt part of that number were ſeverely wounded. The newly-arrived troops retired near the City Notable, in order to refreſh themſelves after the flight of the infidels; and, during their ſtay in that place, the principal chiefs, together with all the knights belonging to that army, proceeded to the Burgh, to pay their compliments to La Valette, who, with the knights and all the inhabitants, gratefully received them as their deliverers from the moſt imminent danger. The knights embraced each other with marks of the greateſt friendſhip and tenderneſs; but, when they reflected on the cruel loſs they had ſuſtained, in the moſt illuſtrious and braveſt members of the order; when they conſidered the deplorable ſtate of the beſieged fortreſſes, the ruined walls and fortifications—the artillery moſtly diſmounted—the houſes either thrown down or ſhaken in their foundations—the magazines emptied of powder, proviſions, and ammunition—the inhabitants pale and disfigured by fatigue—the knights and the grand-maſter himſelf unſhaved, diſhevelled, their dreſs dirty and diſordered; the greateſt part having never taken off their clothes for months; many indeed of theſe brave warriors ſtill appearing with bandages on wounds ſo honourably obtained;—when, I ſay, all theſe affecting images preſented themſelves to their imagination, they reciprocally ſhed tears, and not only wept at the remembrance of their miſfortunes, but for joy that at laſt Malta was ſaved. In order to commemorate the great actions ſo lately performed, the Burgh, which had been the principal theatre of the war, was called *Citta Vittorioſa*, or the Victorious City, which name it has ever ſince preſerved." Vol. ii. p. 119.

The third volume gives the hiſtory of Malta, from the election of the Grand Maſter, Rohan, in 1775, to the preſent time, including its baſe and diſhonourable ſurrender to the French, under Buonaparte, and its recapture by the Engliſh. Theſe circumſtances are ſo well known, or may be ſo eaſily referred to, that further extracts appear to be unneceſſary. The reader will find in the Appendix, an explanation of the various engravings which accompany the work, with obſervations upon them, and various other particulars of greater or leſs importance to the illuſtration of the ſubject. If it were only for the number of authentic State Papers, and other documents, the excellent Map prefixed, with the Chart of the Iſlands, this publication would be entitled to praiſe. But as we have no other work on the ſubject ſo comprehenſive, and as far as we can judge ſo faithfully illuſtrated, it will probably find a place in all collections of the kind. The plates are numerous, but indifferently executed. The Map and Chart are entitled to the higheſt commendation.

ART.

ART. VI. *The Hiſtory of Scotland, from the Union of the Crowns, &c.*

(Continued from our last, p. 245.)

THE author next draws a very ſhocking though too juſt a character of Darnley. His object is to perſuade the reader, that the wayward temper and low amours of that Prince had, ſoon after his marriage, completely alienated from him the affections of the Queen. This is another inſtance of Mr. Laing's addreſs in preparing the mind for the impreſſion which he wiſhes to make upon it; but we ſhall ſoon find ſufficient evidence that the affections of Mary were not eaſily alienated from any object on which they had been fixed. Their firſt alienation from Darnley ſeems to have been occaſioned by the murder of Rizzio, which, when contemplated with all its circumſtances, was certainly a deed of ſuch atrocity as has ſeldom been equalled, and never ſurpaſſed.

This our author reluctantly admits, while he labours, in oppoſition to as full evidence as could be looked for in ſuch a caſe, to vindicate Murray from any participation in that deed of brutality. He revives the calumny invented by Buchanan of the illicit commerce between the Queen and Rizzio. As no man had hitherto given credit to this tale, which Robertſon rejects with juſt indignation, Mr. Laing does not candidly avow that he believes it himſelf; but, with his uſual profeſſional addreſs, obſerves that Rizzio, though ugly, *was not paſt his vigour*; hoping, no doubt, that the groſs inſinuation would have its intended effect. He admits that Morton, Ruthven, and Lethington, Murray's well-tried friends, intended to drag that foreign favourite from the palace, and hang him in the view of the people, that he might no longer by his influence prevent the recal of Murray from that baniſhment into which he had been driven to eſcape the conſequences of his rebellion; but he attributes to the King's jealous and vindictive ſpirit alone the murdering of Rizzio in the preſence of the Queen.

Darnley was indeed very abſurd; but that he ſhould have *thought* of committing ſuch an outrage on his wife, then far gone with child, is ſo extremely improbable, that nothing ſhort of demonſtration can entitle the ſuppoſition to the ſmalleſt degree of credit. Had the Queen miſcarried and died, the only conſequences that could have been reaſonably expected from the circumſtances attending the murder of Rizzio,

Rizzio, what muſt have become of Darnley? He would have been no longer even a *nominal* king; and unreflecting as he was, he muſt have perceived all this, had not he been deceived by the faction who employed him as a tool to carry into effect the object of the alliance into which they had entered with Elizabeth before Mary's return from France. Hence we find that, immediately after the murder, they upbraided the Queen with the baniſhment of Murray and his friends, whom they aſſured her that ſhe ſhould ſee in her preſence next day; and that prediction being verified, leaves no room to doubt that Murray was privy to the conſpiracy for the murder of Rizzio, that he was aware of the manner in which it was to be perpetrated, and that he expected from it the long wiſhed-for opportunity of placing himſelf at the head of the government. If the reader be not ſatisfied of all this, we refer him to Tytler and Whitaker, who have brought ſuch proofs as are abſolutely irreſiſtible, that the murder of Rizzio was planned for the ſame purpoſe with the *Raid of Reith*, and that the conſpirators had a hundred ways of getting rid of ſo inſignificant a foreigner, without committing an outrage on their helpleſs ſovereign, had they not expected from that outrage conſequences which did not enſue*.

That the conduct of Darnley on this occaſion ſunk him in the Queen's eſteem, and of courſe diminiſhed her affection for him, cannot be doubted; but it is not true that from the day on which Rizzio was murdered "nothing could be perceived but great grudges in the heart of the Queen towards her huſband." This is indeed affirmed on the authority of Melville, whoſe age and dotage, it ſeems, detract not from his teſtimony, when it favours the cauſe for which our author contends; but we have better authority than even that of Melville for aſſerting that the grudges which he mentions

* See Tytler's *Inquiry*, vol. 2, pp. 4—15; Whitaker's *Mary vindicated*, 2d edition, vol. 2, p. 75, &c. vol. 3, p. 217, &c. This laſt writer ſays, in the former of the two places referred to, that Darnley inſiſted on Rizzio's being murdered in the preſence of the Queen; and we have no doubt of his having acted thus abſurdly, *after* the conſpirators had *fitted* him for their purpoſe; but it is not conceivable that ſuch an outrage could have *originally* occurred to himſelf. In the latter place to which we have referred, there is indeed complete proof that the whole plan of the murder was concerted by the triumvirate; and that Darnley was the dupe of thoſe whom he thought he was directing in an enterpriſe undertaken to procure to him the crown matrimonial.

were viſible only to himſelf. "Although", ſay the lords of the privy council*, "Rizzio's murder was perpetrated with his (the King's) knowledge, yet would the Queen never accuſe him thereof, but did always excuſe him, and was willing to appear as if ſhe believed it not."

Mr. L. indeed hopes to deſtroy this, and ſome other teſtimonies to the ſame effect, by calling them *artful repreſentations*. "From Lethington's letter to Archbiſhop Beton, it appears", ſays he, "that the members of council, inſtead of writing, were required by the Queen to ſubſcribe thoſe letters to the French court, which are prepoſterouſly quoted as proofs of her affection, and her huſband's caprice".

The reader will recollect that Lethington was one of the triumvirate who, as the advocates for Mary contend, directed the conſpiracy formed to murder Darnley, and to tumble their ſovereign from her throne. He was the very man to whom Whitaker has traced the forgery of the letters which were produced at the conferences in England, as proofs of Mary's complicated guilt of adultery and murder. He confeſſed himſelf that he had frequently counterfeited the hand-writing of his ſovereign; and he certainly caballed with her and her friends, betraying to them the ſecrets of his own party, at the very time he was leagued with Murray and Morton againſt her*. As the conſpiracy, in which he acted ſo conſpicuous a part, was, if real, formed long before the date of his letter to the archbiſhop, the reader will judge for himſelf, what credit is to be given to the teſtimony of ſuch a man, writing, as he ſays himſelf, not merely as ſecretary of ſtate, but as a friend delivering with freedom his own inferences from every fact which he relates. Yet even the letter of this political Proteus will not fairly bear the conſtruction which Mr. Laing puts on it. Lethington ſpeaks of the high honour which the Queen had conferred on Darnley, of his ungrateful return, and of her conſequent unhappineſs. He likewiſe hints at a dark propoſal of his own, on which we ſhall animadvert preſently; after which he ſays—

"Upon ſome brutye that raiſe before her cuming out of Edinbrought, of the kings voyage towards Flanders, or ſome other country, ſcho deſyrit the noblemen and others of the council to ſubſcryve letters to the king, Q. mother and Cardinal of Lorrain, containing a diſcourſe of the proceedings betwixt the kyng and her. I ſend you

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* See their memorial to the Queen-mother of France as quoted by Tytler, vol. 2. p. 56.

* Whitaker, vol. 3. p. 46, &c.

preſently

preſently the copy of the Q. mothers letter quhairby ye will under-ſtand the haill."

This is all the notice taken by Lethington of the memorial of the lords of the council to the court of France; and does it from theſe words follow that the Queen either deſired or could have perſuaded ſo many noblemen to ſubſcribe a falſehood? But this author thinks that ſhe ſhould have deſired them to *write* and not merely to SUBSCRIBE letters to the King, the Queen-mother, and the Cardinal of Lorraine; and perhaps we ſhould be of the ſame opinion, did not ſuch a mode of vindicating her own conduct appear to us utterly impracticable. Was each lord of the Scottiſh council to write theſe letters in defence of his ſovereign? or were the three letters to be written by the whole body, each individual lord writing a ſentence, and then reſigning his pen to his companion? Had the former of theſe expedients been adopted, the King and the Queen-mother of France, with the Cardinal of Lorraine, would probably have deemed the Scottiſh nobles extremely impertinent for preſuming as individuals to write to *them* in defence of their *ſovereign!* Had the latter been preferred, what could have been thought of ſuch patched and piebald memorials, but that they had been written by men who had either loſt their ſenſes, or choſen moſt unreaſonably to inſult at once their own ſovereign and the court of France? But Le Croi, or Du Croi as Lethington calls him, who was the French ambaſſador at the court of Scotland, wrote to his court at the ſame time, and to the ſame purpoſe with the lords of the council, and as Lethington does not ſay nor inſinuate that he ſubſcribed a letter at the deſire of the Queen, how is his teſtimony * to be ſet aſide? Nay, how is the teſtimony of Lethington himſelf to be ſet aſide, who, in the very letter appealed to by this author, repreſents the Queen as dying of *heart-break* for the ingratitude and baſe conduct of her huſband, which is ſurely a ſufficient "proof of her affection and of his caprice."

"In proportion as her huſband ſunk", ſays Mr. Laing, "the Earl of Bothwell roſe in her eſteem"; but of this not one proof is offered, which had not been urged by Hume and Robertſon, and completely refuted by Tytler and Whitaker. Bothwell is here ſaid to have been "*rewarded* with the office of lord high admiral"; while by Tytler he is ſtyled "*hereditary* high admiral of Scotland, the head of an antient family, and one of the moſt powerful noblemen in the kingdom." Both writers admit his courage and fidelity, which certainly

* See an extract from his letter in Tytler, vol. 2. p. 61, &c. entitled

entitled him to ſome reward, as well as to the confidence of his ſovereign; and though Mr. Laing, keeping his loyalty as much as poſſible out of ſight, ſays that Mary *acknowledged* to Murray when in Lochleven Caſtle her criminal intercourſe with Bothwell, and appeals to *Buchanan's Detection* as no authority, he only trifles with his readers; but when he adds the name of Keith to that of Buchanan, as bearing teſtimony to the ſame confeſſion, he deceives them. Keith ſays not one word in corroboration of the teſtimony of Buchanan, who was himſelf one of the conſpirators againſt the Queen; who aſſiſted Murray and Morton at the conferences in England; who has been more than ſuſpected of being concerned in the forgery of the letters and ſonnets, and who is the only original writer who mentions this pretended confeſſion.

"But", continues the author, "the alarm which ſhe felt, and the anxiety which ſhe expreſſed for his ſafety, when wounded in Liddeſdale, are convincing proofs of the moſt tender affection. The day before her arrival at Jedburgh, to hold a court of juſtice, Bothwell proceeded to Liddeſdale to apprehend ſome thieves; but was attacked and wounded by one whom he had ſhot unawares, and attempted to ſeize. There was no inſurrection to demand her preſence; no viſible circumſtance to require, or even to juſtify a viſit from the Queen.—"But the Queen underſtanding the certain report of the accident", according to a contemporary altogether partial to her fame, "was ſo heichlie greevit in hairt, that ſchoe took na repoſe in bodye till ſchoe ſawe him." No ſooner was ſhe informed of his ſituation, than ſhe rode from Jedburgh, with a few attendants, to Hermitage Caſtle, whither Bothwell had been conveyed; a journey of twenty Scotch miles, in the month of October, through a country infeſted with banditti, and at that ſeaſon almoſt impaſſable. On diſcovering that his wounds were not dangerous, ſhe recollected the hazard to which ſhe was herſelf expoſed, from the licentious borderers, and ſhe returned to Jedburgh that ſame night. The difficulties and haſte of the journey are ſtill preſerved in the tradition of the country; that her white palfrey ſunk into a moraſs, which retains the name of the queen's moſs, and that ſhe was accompanied only by ten attendants, who extricated and carried her back to Hawick. But the conſequence of this expedition was a burning fever, occaſioned by a rapid journey of forty miles, the night air, and above all "by the great diſtreſs of her mind for the Earl of Bothwell"; or, according to Lethington, who conceals the journey, her ſickneſs was "cauſit of thoucht or diſpleaſure, and I trow, by that I could wring furder of her awain declaration to me, the rote of it is the king."

We have read again and again the letter of Lethington here appealed to, and have already quoted it; but we have in it nothing that appears capable of being perverted into an accuſation of the Queen at the period when it was written. Upon what

what principle Mr. Laing infers from the paper quoted by him, that ſhe had then any criminal attachment to the Earl of Bothwell we cannot conceive; for the words " by the great diſtreſs of her mind for the Earl of Bothwell", though given as a quotation, are not Lethington's. Perhaps they are taken from the contemporary author of whom he ſpeaks, as of a man altogether partial to her fame; but the work of that author being a manuſcript lately depoſited in the library of the faculty of advocates in Edinburgh, we have never ſeen it, and therefore know not whether it be partial to the cauſe of the Queen or to the cauſe of the conſpirators. We have indeed been informed by a very competent judge, by whom at our requeſt it was examined with ſome care, that it is a thing of very little value, appearing to be a collecton of all the reports of the day, with as little diſcrimination as is generally to be found in a newſpaper. At all events it is *anonymous*, and therefore not entitled to the ſame credit with the biſhop of Roſs and the Earl of Bedford, from whom Tytler gives a perſpicuous, conſiſtent, and therefore ſatisfactory account of the motive of the Queen's march from Jedburgh to the Hermitage. From that account it appears that, having reaſon to apprehend a very formidable inſurrection on the borders fomented by Morton and the baniſhed Lords, ſhe might be " reichlie greevit in heirt at the certein report of the accident," which had befallen her lieutenant of the marches, though he had been perſonally odious in her ſight. We ſhall inſert part of Mr. Tytler's reaſoning, which is as complete a confutation of the reaſoning of the preſent author as of that of the celebrated hiſtorian, in whoſe footſteps he ſo carefully treads.

" This incident (the march to Hermitage) as pointed out by Dr. Robertſon as a ſtrong proof of Mary's love for Bothwell: "the Queen's flying thither", ſays he, " ſtrongly marks the anxiety of a lover, but was unſuitable to her dignity as a Queen. To make a journey of eighteen miles, in the month of October, on an expedition againſt thieves, can be accounted for", concludes our author, " from no other motive than love."

" This reaſoning ſeems more ſpecious than ſolid. In arguing on facts of a remoter age, the manners of that age are to be conſidered, which differ very widely from the preſent. The peace of the border, and the quelling of inſurrections there, had always been conſidered by our monarchs, as an object worthy of attention. Mary's father, the high-ſpirited James V. had often in perſon quelled ſuch diſorders.—Mary herſelf had before this made expeditions of this kind through ſeveral parts of her kingdom. It plainly appears that an inſurrection was premeditated on the border; and for preventing this, and holding a ſolemn court of juſtice, the whole country then attended the Queen in

in arms at Jedburgh*. The rumour of the attack on Bothwell, we may believe, was greatly magnified, together with the contempt of the Queen's authority, then in the very neighbourhood: all this, with the conſciouſneſs of her ſtrength to cruſh ſo audacious an inſult, may ſufficiently, and without any ſuppoſed love for Bothwell, account for Mary's ſudden march to the Hermitage. On the contrary, I apprehend Mary acted on this occaſion the very reverſe of what a lover would have done. Love", ſays our author (Dr. R.) " made her fly to Bothwell through eighteen long miles of bad roads, in the month of October. But let me aſk, upon her finding Bothwell ſlightly wounded, *and the rioters fled*, was it love that made her in ſuch a violent haſte return the ſame night to Jedburgh, by the ſame bad roads and tedious miles"?

This queſtion will never be anſwered by thoſe who contend that love hurried her from Jedburgh to the Hermitage; and Mr. L.'s appeal to his anonymous manuſcript, and *the Diary of Murray or Cecil*, will juſt as ſoon overturn the Principia of Newton, as the concluſion which Mr. Tytler draws from the conduct of the Queen. To appeal to the *Diary* in the beginning of ſuch a diſſertation as this is indeed ridiculous: it is as if Mr. Laing, when pleading for a felon or a traitor, ſhould deſire the jury to diſregard all other evidence which had been brought before them, and return a verdict agreeable to the declaration of his client when aſked at the commencement of the trial, whether he was guilty or not guilty of the crime with which he was charged!

As this author profeſſes to give greater credit to what he calls *moral evidence*, than to the analyſis of teſtimony reſpecting hiſtorical facts, we were greatly ſurpriſed at finding him paſs without notice the account given by Leſlie of the Queen's behaviour, when, immediately after this rapid march, ſhe thought herſelf laid on the bed of death. In ſuch moments, when heaven and hell preſent themſelves to the mind's eye, all diſguiſes are generally put off; nor will the ſplendor of a diadem render a perſon who retains any ſenſe of religion, perfectly eaſy under the conſciouſneſs of ſuch a foul crime as adultery. Yet Mary appears to have been on this occaſion calm, pious, and reſigned. " She maid the moiſt godlie ex-

* All this the learned and acute author proves completely by a letter to Cecil from the Earl of Bedford, Lord Lieutenant of the Engliſh borders, who aſſigns a very ſufficient reaſon for the Queen's marching in perſon againſt the inſurgents. See The *Inquiry*, vol. 2. pp. 39—46.

hortatiouns", ſays the biſhop, " to all the nobilitie being here at this preſent time, that ever prince, or other, made at ſic time." Were ſuch exhortations *moral evidence* that ſhe was immerſed at that moment in a criminal amour? that ſhe had even brought herſelf to the ſtate in which ſhe was, by her eager proſecution of that amour?

When ſhe recovered from that illneſs, the expedient of a divorce, ſays the author, was propoſed to her by ſome of the nobility at the caſtle of Craigmillar; and he adds, that " ſhe *required that it ſhould be lawfully made*, without prejudice to her ſon". This was ſurely an extraordinary requeſt, if ſhe was then infatuated with the love of Bothwell. Why ſhould a woman ſunk in adultery, and meditating murder, have preferred the ſon of the man whom ſhe hated, to the children whom ſhe might have by him, for whoſe ſake ſhe had plunged into the groſſeſt crimes, abandoning her character in this world, and her hopes of happineſs in the next? But we ſhall ſee preſently that no ſuch requeſt was made; and that even our author's account of the conference at Craigmillar, garbled as it is, furniſhes a proof of Mary's innocence, and a ſtrong preſumption at leaſt of the guilt of Murray and his aſſociates. When ſhe had made this very ſingular requeſt—

" Madam," ſaid ſecretary Lethington, " fancie ye not that wi are heir of the principal of your graces nobilitie and counſal, that ſall fynd the moyin that your majeſtie ſall be *quyt of him* without prejudice of your ſone: and albeite that my lord of Murraye heir preſent, be lytill leſs ſcrupulus for ane proteſtant than your grace is for ane papiſt, I am aſſurit he will looke throw his fingeris thairto, and will behald our doeings, ſaying nathing to the ſame." " I will that ye do nathing", ſaid Mary, " quhairto any ſpot may be layit to my *honour or conſcience*, and thairfor I pray you rather let the matter be in the eſtait as it is, abyding that God of his gudneſs put remeid thairto, that ye beleifing to do me ſervice, may poſſibill turn to my hurt and diſpleaſour." " Madam," ſaid Lethington, " let us guyde the matter amongis us, and your grace ſall ſee nathing but gude, and approvit be parliament." From theſe premiſes, Argyle and Huntley are inſtructed to conclude, and to maintain by ſingle combat, that Murray and Lethington were the authors of the murder of which they had unjuſtly accuſed the Queen. If Murray had even propoſed a divorce with the Queen's conſent, the concluſion, that he murdered her huſband without her knowledge, may be juſtly derided as unconnected with the premiſes; and as worthy only of the proof offered, if a judicial combat can deſerve that name. But in Paris's firſt declaration, which it is neceſſary to anticipate, Bothwell informs him, that he was ſure of Lethington, the enterpriſer of the whole, and of Argyle, and Huntley his brother, whoſe hand writs he had for the deed; and that they

they were willing to have done it the laſt time that they were at Craigmillar. If Lethington, therefore, alludes, as his diſcourſe undoubtedly does, to the murder, whatever concluſion may be deduced from Murray's ſilence, the Queen's anſwer but too evidently implies a foreknowledge, and her acquieſcence a tacit approbation of the deſign, which the leaſt prohibition, or intimation of her abhorrence might have ſufficed to prevent." Vol. i. p. 20.

Is a prohibition, in as ſtrong terms as can eaſily be conceived, a tacit approbation of their deſign? "I *will*", ſaid Mary, "that ye do nothing from which any ſpot may be laid to my *honour* or *conſcience*." She muſt have been deep ſunk in depravity indeed, and deprived even of common ſenſe, if ſhe imagined that ſhe ſhould not ſtain her honour and conſcience by acquieſcing in the murder of her huſband! But why ſhould ſhe have murdered him? He was not a ſovereign; he had been guilty of treaſon; he might have been tried for that treaſon, and legally convicted of it; and from the whole conference, as given at length by Tytler and others, it appears to us that if Mary ſuſpected any thing more in the propoſal than barely a divorce, her ſuſpicion reached no further than to ſuch a trial, which might indeed have proved injurious to her ſon. That the murder was at this time reſolved on by the conſpirators, and ſo planned as to involve the Queen in the odium of it, appears indeed more than probable from the dark hints thrown out by Lethington in his letter to the Archbiſhop of Glaſgow. "How to be free of him (Darnley) ſhe was ne outgeit", ſays Lethington. "I ſee between them na agreement nor na appearance that they ſall agree weill theirafter. At leaſt I am aſſurit that *it has beene hir mynd this gude quhile, and yit is as I write.*"

This ſeems abundantly plain, when compared with the event; but ſhe could have no ſuſpicion, at the time, of the deſigns of the cabal, and was ſo far from wiſhing to murder her huſband, to bring him to trial, or even to divorce him (which we ſhould think an adultreſs would have been glad to do), that in reply to Lethington, who had enumerated Darnley's intolerable offences, ſhe ſaid, "that peradventure he *would change opinion*, and that it was better that ſche heirſelf for one tyme paſſit in France, abyding till he *acknowledgit himſelf*." This Mr. Laing has omitted; but we are not ſurpriſed either at the omiſſions or at the additions made to any thing by the man who can quote, as a preſumption of Mary's guilt and Murray's innocence, a paper which was drawn up by Mary's commiſſioners for the expreſs purpoſe of vindicating her and criminating her enemies. Murray himſelf judged of it otherwiſe,

as appears from his ſhuffling reply; which gives an authenticity to the paper ſtill in exiſtence, that no copy could otherwiſe have had*.

The other facts noticed by Mr. Laing, as preceding the murder of Darnley, are of much leſs importance than thoſe which we have conſidered. They give not the ſmalleſt ſupport to the hypotheſis which he has adopted, unleſs the famous letters, ſonnets, and contracts be admitted as genuine; and if theſe be admitted, all other facts are ſuperfluous. The reſtoration of the conſiſtorial court of St. Andrews, which had never been legally aboliſhed†, is to be attributed to the Queen's having lately acceded to the *Holy League*, for the preſervation of the Catholic faith. The abſence of the King from the baptiſm of the Prince, and his ſubſequent retiring from Stirling to Glaſgow, have been accounted for by Tytler, in a manner which muſt carry conviction to every mind not *determined* to eſpouſe the cauſe of the rebels. But the aſſertion, (p. 27) that "the Queen muſt have correſponded with Bothwell, in order to procure and prepare the houſe for his (Darnley's) reception, at the Kirk of Field", appears to be an abſurd fiction without even the ſhadow of ſupport.

The concluſion therefore which we are compelled to draw from every circumſtance in the preceding detail, is the reverſe of that which has been drawn by the author of the Diſſertation. We diſcover no proof nor probable motive of the Queen's guilt; but the ſtrongeſt preſumption, ariſing from Murray's ambition, and uniform conduct, that he was not only privy, but acceſſary to the death of the King.

(To be continued.)

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* See Tytler, vol. 2. pp. 16—36, and, above all, Whitaker, vol. 3. pp. 433—440.

† On the reſtoration of that court, Mr. L. triumphs with inſolence over Whitaker, although it is obvious that he has gained no victory. The ſpiritual courts may have ceaſed to act; but they certainly were not *aboliſhed* in 1560, unleſs by the conſtitution of Scotland an ordinance of the eſtates, or part of the eſtates, without the regal conſent, had the force of an act of parliament. This Mr. Whitaker does not believe to have been the caſe; but becauſe he is no Scotchman, our author ſeems to think that he can know nothing of the matter.

ART. VII. *Asiatic Researches; or, Transactions of the Society instituted in Bengal, for enquiring into the History and Antiquities, the Arts, Sciences, and Literature of Asia.* Volume 6th. 4to. Calcutta printed; sold by Payne and Mackinlay, London. Also reprinted by Vernor and Hood, 4to. and 8vo.

OUR review of the present volume has been, by accident, delayed beyond the usual period. In the mean time, some very interesting intelligence has arrived in Europe, which that delay affords us an opportunity of submitting to our readers from an authentic source of information, relative to the imposition upon Mr. Wilford by the Brahmins, on the subject of the sacred islands in the West, i. e. England and Ireland. It is contained in a letter to a distinguished Asiatic scholar in this country; and in it Mr. W. says, "that he was then slowly recovering from a fit of illness brought on, or, at least, greatly augmented, by finding that his Pundits had totally deceived him in almost all that he had written about those islands; having at different times, and, in proportion as they became acquainted with his pursuits and his wishes, made *erasures* in the Sanscrit MSS. and on those *erasures* inserted the names RAJATA-DWEEP, for England, and SUVARNA-DWEEP, for Ireland. Mr. W. in the most feeling manner laments that he should thus have been made a dupe by those artful men, induced to sanction a falsehood, and transmit to Europe unfounded intelligence concerning these isles; adding, that those frequently-recurring *erasures* in most Indian MSS. tended to throw a deep shade over their presumed authority, and should make him doubly careful in future". The anxiety of Mr. W. on this subject does him great honour; and his frankness in communicating the fact, as soon as he discovered the fraud, demonstrates him to be a man of strict integrity, and one who greatly prefers truth to any favourite hypothesis.

Another imposition of a still more formidable kind, and connected with more important interests, has since come to light; and we have the misfortune to find, that the well-known passage in the 3d volume of these Researches, affirmed by Sir W. Jones to be an exact translation by himself, from an Indian MS. forwarded to him by Mr. Wilford, relative to Noah, under the name of *Satyavarman* and his three sons, *Sherma*, *Charma*, and *Jyapeti*, is also a forgery of the Brahmins. Though the sacred books by no means stood in need of this corroborative evidence of their authenticity, yet it was no small gratification to pious minds, to find its records thus decidedly confirmed by those of one of the most ancient nations of the earth.

earth. That evidence is now found to be baſeleſs, and the Moſaic relation ſtands as before, ſecure in its own evidence; and the only reſult is, our being filled with indignation at the fraudful baſeneſs of the ſacerdotal tribe of India. By theſe repeated attempts, however, to impoſe on our countrymen, all dependence on their vaunted books is inevitably ſhaken to the foundation, and, after the moſt elaborate reſearch into their ancient chronicles for hiſtorical truth, the exhauſted ſtudent may too late find out that he has been labouring in vain.

The volume under conſideration compriſes *thirteen* articles, ſome of which are of conſiderable importance, and to thoſe we ſhall principally direct the reader's attention. The *firſt*, is an elegant diſcourſe delivered by the late Sir Robert Chambers on his acceſſion to the preſidency, when Sir John Shore ſailed for Europe. He modeſtly hints at thoſe defects which might appear to incapacitate him for the important office, want of eſtabliſhed health, a very moderate acquaintance with Aſiatic languages, and age rather advanced; but he promiſes to exert what health and powers he poſſeſſed in the vigorous execution of the duty allotted to him; and it is well known that he did exert them in a manner to merit univerſal approbation. He has ſince followed his friend, the firſt Preſident, to that bourn where mortal praiſe and cenſure are alike indifferent.

2. *Narrative of a Journey from Agra to Oujein, by William Hunter, Eſq.*

This journey, lying through countries very little known to Europeans, derives from that circumſtance a peculiar intereſt. Mr. Hunter attended Major Palmer, reſident at the court of Sindiah the celebrated Mahratta Chief, to Oujein, his capital, in the year 1792, and preſents us with an account of places and people very diverſified in their appearance and manners; exhibiting, in reſpect to the former, ſometimes barrenneſs and penury in the extreme, at others, the richeſt verdure and cultivation; while in the latter are diſplayed alternate ferocity and urbanity, as they aſcended the mountains or traverſed the valleys; nature and man both extremely varying with the aſpect of the country through which they paſſed. Early in their rout they paſſed the vaſt rock-fortreſs of Gualior, which, by prints and printed accounts, is now too well known in Europe to need any minutiæ of detail in this place. The natural hiſtory, too, in their progreſs is by no means neglected; and ſeveral rare and curious plants are deſcribed, as well as the ſoil and ſtrata of the country. Oujein is repreſented as ſituated in latitude 23° 11′ 13′ north. The ancient city of the ſame name was about a mile from the preſent, and lies deeply buried under

der its own ruins. It is said to have been destroyed by a *shower of earth* that fell from Heaven, and a ridiculous legend, as usual, is inserted relative to its catastrophe. What Mr. Hunter saw, will give our readers more information than the Indian legend. The following is his account:

"On the spot where the ancient city is said to have stood, by digging to the depth of from fifteen to eighteen feet, they find brick walls entire, pillars of stone, and pieces of wood, of an extraordinary hardness. The bricks, thus dug up, are used for building, and some of them are of a much larger size than any made in the present, or late ages. Utensils of various kinds are sometimes dug up in the same places, and ancient coins are found, either by digging, or in the channels cut by the periodical rains; having been washed away, or their earthy covering removed by the torrents. During our stay at Oujein, a large quantity of wheat was found by a man in digging for bricks. It was, as might have been expected, almost entirely consumed, and in a state resembling charcoal. The earth of which this mound is composed, being soft, is cut into ravines, by the rains; and in one of these, from which several stone pillars had been dug, I saw a space, from twelve to fifteen feet long, and seven or eight high, composed of earthen vessels, broken, and closely compacted together. It was conjectured, with great appearance of probability, to be a potter's kiln. Between this place and the new town, is a hollow, in which tradition says, the river Sipparah formerly ran. It changed its course, at the time the city was buried, and now runs to the westward." P. 36.

Mr. Hunter thinks that an inundation of the river which runs by it might have caused its destruction; but recurring to the legend, as fable has generally some obscure fact for its basis, considers it possible that a sand storm, such as astonished Bruce in the African deserts, might have overwhelmed it. The present Oujein is described as of an oblong form, six miles in circumference, surrounded by a stone wall, with round towers; as having four mosques with many Hindu temples, and a palace, but not magnificent, the occasional residence of Sindiah. (p. 41.)

We pass over the two succeeding articles, on the *Poggy Islands*, and the *Theory of Walls*, as unimportant, and proceed to notice,

5. *On the Poison of Serpents. By W. Boag, Esq.*

This is an important dissertation to a race so infested with serpents as the Indians. Mr. Boag professes in it, to treat of the *disease* and its *cure*. He affirms, that the greater number of serpents are not in the least venomous. Only about one in ten bear about them the poison that is deadly to *man*, though destructive to smaller animals. The colour of the serpent, he regards as no certain criterion of its being venomous, though sometimes thought so; the only certain one is the large canine teeth,

teeth, or fangs, fixed in the upper jaw, which are commonly *two* in number, but often more. Then follows an anatomical deſcription of the ſurrounding parts of the reſervoir, or bag that holds the poiſon, and the membranes, and muſcles, uſed in protruding it, when the animal inflicts the fatal wound. Thrown naked on the ground, and expoſed to every injury, the ſerpent poſſeſſes a weapon for its defence and revenge, more terrible than any known beſides in nature. Civilized man regards him with innate horror; the awe-ſtruck ſavage propitiates him with food, and ſoothes him with religious rites. The quality of the venomous matter is next inveſtigated, and its dreadful effects on the human frame are deſcribed; medical obſervations, connected with the ſubject, that argue conſiderable depth of reſearch, ſucceed; and the reſult is, "that the poiſon of ſerpents acts upon the blood, by attracting the *oxygen*, which it receives from the atmoſphere in its paſſage through the lungs, and upon which its *vitality* depends." P. 109. This aſſertion is proved by a train of arguments and experiments, which, in ſome degree, claſh with thoſe of the celebrated MEAD; but the preſent advanced ſtate of medical ſcience has made us more intimately acquainted with the ſubject than Mead could be; and the ingenious writer now proceeds to point out the cure. Having taken an extenſive view of the ancient methods of effecting that cure, all ſhaded with doubt and ſuſpicion, he ultimately recommends, as a ſpecific in this dreadful malady, the "*lunar cauſtic*, which is a preparation of ſilver in the nitric acid," a remedy long ago propoſed by Fontana, who mixed the venom with the lunar cauſtic, and found that it was thus rendered entirely innocent. He explains the mode of its operation in the following manner:

"OXYGEN, we have already obſerved, is a principle which enters into the compoſition of the blood, and performs a very important part in the animal œconomy. It muſt alſo be evident that the blood may be more or leſs loaded with this principle, and that diſeaſe may be produced, either by too great, or by too ſmall a quantity being preſent in the circulating maſs. We have already ſaid that the diſeaſe produced by the bite of a ſerpent, ariſes from the ſubtraction of oxygen from the blood: the indication of cure muſt therefore be, to ſupply this oxygen, which we ſuppoſe to be withdrawn. The moſt obvious method of accompliſhing this will be to employ ſuch ſubſtances as are known to contain oxygen in the greateſt abundance, and to part with it with the greateſt facility. This is preciſely the character of the lunar cauſtic, which is made by diſſolving ſilver in the nitric acid, and afterwards evaporating and cryſtalliſing the ſolution. The compoſition of the nitric acid is alſo accurately aſcertained, it differs from the common nitrous acid of the ſhops, by containing a greater quantity of oxygen, and in a ſingularly looſe form; ſo that if

our

our reasoning upon the poison of the serpent be in any degree correct, no medicine would appear to be better calculated than this, to obviate its effects." P. 115.

6 *An Account of the Petroleum Wells in the Burmha Dominions; extracted from a Journal of a Voyage from Ranghong up the River Erai-Wuddey to Amarapoorah, the present Capital of the Burmha Empire. By Capt. Hiram Cox, Resident at Ranghong.*

These wells are in number no less than 520, and the oil produced by them, we are informed, is a genuine petroleum. Captain Cox gives a very minute and instructive account of the mode in which they are sunk, and the manner in which the petroleum is raised, often from very considerable depths. The working of them is frequently fatal to the miners, from the mephitic air met with at those depths, and which instantly inflicts death; but still the natives persevere. The oil comes up pure from the wells, in the liquid state, as used: it is of a greenish colour, and odorous: it is used principally for lamps, and for paying the timbers of houses and the bottoms of boats, which it is said to preserve from decay and vermin. It has also medicinal virtues, and is used as an embrocation in bruises and rheumatic affections. These wells are the property of individuals resident near the spot, and descend by inheritance in the families to which they belong. They are the source of a considerable revenue to the king of Burmha, and give employment to a multitude of men engaged in circulating through the empire their valuable produce.

The 7th article, on *The Maximum of* MECHANIC *Powers, and the Effects of* MACHINES *in Motion, by Lieutenant Lambton*, though ingenious, we pass over, because not immediately connected with the professed object of the Asiatic Researches, the natural and civil history and sciences of Asia; but our attention is strongly attracted to the next article, which exhibits a still wider view of that great empire, the Burman, so recently only penetrated by Europeans.

8. *On the Religion and Literature of the Burmans. By Dr. Buchanan.*

Dr. Buchanan, who accompanied Colonel Symes at Ava, commences his dissertation by informing us, that the prevailing religion in Burmu is that of Buddha, upon whom and his doctrines we have a very extended discussion, intended principally to prove the *priority* of that superstition, from its great diffusion in Asia, to the Brahmin ritual even in India itself. We were somewhat surprised at this assertion, which is in direct contradiction to Sir W. Jones, who makes Buddha

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teeth, or fangs, fixed in the upper jaw, which are commonly *two* in number, but often more. Then follows an anatomical description of the surrounding parts of the reservoir, or bag that holds the poison, and the membranes, and muscles, used in protruding it, when the animal inflicts the fatal wound. Thrown naked on the ground, and exposed to every injury, the serpent possesses a weapon for its defence and revenge, more terrible than any known besides in nature. Civilized man regards him with innate horror; the awe-struck savage propitiates him with food, and soothes him with religious rites. The quality of the venomous matter is next investigated, and its dreadful effects on the human frame are described; medical observations, connected with the subject, that argue considerable depth of research, succeed; and the result is, "that the poison of serpents acts upon the blood, by attracting the *oxygen*, which it receives from the atmosphere in its passage through the lungs, and upon which its *vitality* depends." P. 109. This assertion is proved by a train of arguments and experiments, which, in some degree, clash with those of the celebrated MEAD; but the present advanced state of medical science has made us more intimately acquainted with the subject than Mead could be; and the ingenious writer now proceeds to point out the cure. Having taken an extensive view of the ancient methods of effecting that cure, all shaded with doubt and suspicion, he ultimately recommends, as a specific in this dreadful malady, the "*lunar caustic*, which is a preparation of silver in the nitric acid," a remedy long ago proposed by Fontana, who mixed the venom with the lunar caustic, and found that it was thus rendered entirely innocent. He explains the mode of its operation in the following manner:

"OXYGEN, we have already observed, is a principle which enters into the composition of the blood, and performs a very important part in the animal œconomy. It must also be evident that the blood may be more or less loaded with this principle, and that disease may be produced, either by too great, or by too small a quantity being present in the circulating mass. We have already said that the disease produced by the bite of a serpent, arises from the subtraction of oxygen from the blood: the indication of cure must therefore be, to supply this oxygen, which we suppose to be withdrawn. The most obvious method of accomplishing this will be to employ such substances as are known to contain oxygen in the greatest abundance, and to part with it with the greatest facility. This is precisely the character of the lunar caustic, which is made by dissolving silver in the nitric acid, and afterwards evaporating and crystallising the solution. The composition of the nitric acid is also accurately ascertained, it differs from the common nitrous acid of the shops, by containing a greater quantity of oxygen, and in a singularly loose form; so that it

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The 7th article, on *The Maximum of* MECHANIC *Powers, and the Effects of* MACHINES *in Motion, by Lieutenant Lambton*, though ingenious, we pass over, because not immediately connected with the professed object of the Asiatic Researches, the natural and civil history and sciences of Asia; but our attention is strongly attracted to the next article, which exhibits a still wider view of that great empire, the Burman, so recently only penetrated by Europeans.

8. *On the Religion and Literature of the Burmans. By Dr. Buchanan.*

Dr. Buchanan, who accompanied Colonel Symes at Ava, commences his dissertation by informing us, that the prevailing religion in Burmu is that of Buddha, upon whom and his doctrines we have a very extended discussion, intended principally to prove the *priority* of that superstition, from its great diffusion in Asia, to the Brahmin ritual even in India itself. We were somewhat surprised at this assertion, which is in direct contradiction to Sir W. Jones, who makes

Buddha

Buddha to be the ninth Indian Avatar, and fixes the period of his appearance, or that of his reign rather, for he was probably one of their god-kings, about the beginning of the fourth age, according to his diviſion of the chronology of the Hindoos. He alſo conſtantly ſpeaks of the Brahmins as the ancient venerated poſſeſſors of that country, and the founders both of its religion and law. Our aſtoniſhment, therefore, was conſiderable, when we read in a diſcourſe by one of the members of the ſociety, eſtabliſhed by that firſt of Aſiatic ſcholars, and citing him alſo, the following paſſage, which ſo effectually degrades them from their rank and conſequence.

" If the conjectures of Sir William Jones, relative to the inſcriptions found at Mongheer, and on the pillar at Buddal, be well founded, then the governing power on the banks of the Ganges, as late as about the time of the birth of Chriſt, was of the ſect of Bouddha. The Brahmens indeed had then introduced themſelves into Hinduſtan, and had obtained lands, and even the rank of prime miniſter to the great Rajah: but they had not perſuaded him to change his religion; a change which when accompliſhed, proved equally deſtructive to the prince, and to the people. However idle and ridiculous the legends and notions of the worſhippers of Bouddha may be, they have been in a great meaſure adopted by the Brahmens, but with all their defects monſtrouſly aggravated: rajahs and heroes are converted into gods, and impoſſibilities are heaped on improbabilities. No uſeful ſcience have the Brahmens diffuſed among their followers; hiſtory they have totally aboliſhed; morality they have depreſſed to the utmoſt; and the dignity and power of the altar they have erected on the ruins of the ſtate, and the rights of the ſubject. Even the laws attributed to Menu, which, under the form in uſe among the Burmas are not ill ſuited for the purpoſe of an abſolute monarchy, under the hands of the Brahmens have become the moſt abominable, and degrading ſyſtem of oppreſſion, ever invented by the craft of deſigning men." P. 165.

According to this writer, therefore, the religion of Buddha flouriſhed on the banks of the Ganges about the period of the birth of Chriſt; and the Brahmins only then *firſt* introduced themſelves and their ſacred rites into the country, notwithſtanding the hiſtorians of Alexander preſent us with a manifeſt and genuine portrait of the precepts and manners of thoſe prieſts under the title of Brachmans; notwithſtanding half the names of ancient Indian cities and places are formed from the Sanſcrit, their native dialect, and alluſive to their gods and rajahs; and notwithſtanding the figures in the caverns of Elephanta, and the ſculptures at Ellora, cut out of the ſolid rock for nearly two leagues in extent, indiſputably allude to their hiſtory and religious rites. Theſe ancient and wonderful excavations could only have been made when a great empire had reached its meridian

ridian splendor, and a powerful monarch gave encouragement to the arts, and protection to the priesthood. Whatever was the religion of Burma in ancient periods, it may be depended upon that the *Brahminical* was the religion of Hindostan. Indeed, from the evidence here adduced by Dr. Buchanan, the latter seems to have formed the basis of even the Burman religion itself, for in the extract here given from manuscripts of the country, translated into Latin by Dr. B. the names of places and of persons, as well as the mythology, are evidently Indian, though somewhat obscured by the orthography. The treatise alluded to is far too long to be abridged, and we must refer the curious reader for the perusal of it to the volume itself. Of the Burman nation, of their progress in science, and their manners, what this ingenious writer personally observed may with safety be credited; and a part of his extended description, in a more particular manner relative to their scientific attainments, and the literary character of the reigning sovereign, is as follows:

"In their more elegant books, the Burmas write on sheets of ivory, or on very fine white palmira leaves. The ivory is stained black, and the margins are ornamented with gilding, while the characters are enamelled or gilded. On the palmira leaves the characters are in general of black enamel; and the ends of the leaves, and margins, are painted with flowers in various bright colours. In their more common books, the Burmas with an iron style engrave their writings on palmira leaves. A hole, through both ends of each leaf, serves to connect the whole into a volume by means of two strings, which also pass through the two wooden boards, that serve for binding. In the finer binding of these kind of books the boards are lacquered, the edges of the leaves cut smooth and gilded, and the title is written on the upper board, the two cords are by a knot or jewel secured at a little distance from the boards, so as to prevent the book from falling to pieces, but sufficiently distant to admit of the upper leaves being turned back, while the lower ones are read. The more elegant books are in general wrapped up in silk cloth, and bound round by a garter, in which the Burmas have the art to weave the title of the book.

"As there are but few of the Burmas who do not read and write, almost every man carries with him a parawaik, in which he keeps his accounts, copies songs, till he can repeat them from memory, and takes memorandums of any thing curious. It is on these parawaiks that the Zares or writers in all courts, and public offices, take down the proceedings and orders of the superior officers: from thence copying such parts, as are necessary, into books of a more durable and elegant nature. The parawaik is made of one sheet of thick and strong paper blackened over. A good one may be about eight feet long, and eighteen inches wide. It is folded up somewhat like a fan, or thus *a* ⌣⌣⌣⌣⌣⌣ *b* each fold, or page being about six inches, and in length the whole breadth of the sheet. Thence, wherever the book

book is opened, which ever side is uppermost, no part of it can be rubbed, but the two outer pages, *a. b.* and it only occupies a table one foot in width by eighteen inches long. The Burmas write on the parawaik with a pencil of steatites. When in haste the Zares use many contractions, and write with wonderful quickness. I have seen them keep up with an officer dictating, and not speaking very slow. But when they take pains, the characters written on the parawaik are remarkably neat. Indeed this nation, like the Chinese, pique themselves much on writing an elegant, and distinct character. When that, which has been written on a parawaik, becomes no longer useful, the pages are rubbed over with charcoal, and the leaves of a species of Dolichos: they are then clean, as if new, and equally fit for the pencil.

"Every convent has a collection of books: several of which are pretty considerable. The most common copiers are indeed the Rahans, who prepare books both for their convents, and for presents to their lay benefactors. These books are kept in chests, much ornamented with gilding, and bits of looking glass, fastened on with lacquer, in the shape of flowers. At Amarapura we were shewn a part of the royal library. This is a brick building, surrounded by enclosed courts, and temples, which occupy a delightful situation, in the N. W. angle of the city. Near it is a small, but most elegant Kiaung. To this, at times, the monarch retires; and we were shewn the gilded couch on which he reposes, while the Zarado reads to him, and instructs him in the duties of religion. The library itself is neither a convenient nor handsome building. The gallery, into which we entered, contained about a hundred chests, gilded on the sides, and lacquered above, with the general title of their contents written in golden letters. The chests were large, and if full, must have contained many thousand volumes. As we saw only a part, I presume that the king's collection is very extensive. He is, indeed, said to be a very intelligent, and learned prince. He was very desirous of obtaining some Brahmen more learned, than those he had, to instruct him in astronomy: and he had caused the institutes of Menu to be translated from the English of Sir William Jones. He must therefore have heard of what is pursued among Europeans, in at least oriental literature: and it is to be hoped, that some more useful books may attract his notice: books which might tend to improve the people, and give them more enlightened notions of politics, of the arts, and of science. Hitherto, I suspect, the laws, or religion, of the Burmas, have contributed little to the happiness of the people; but fortunately they have not, like those of the Brahmens, placed any insurmountable obstacles in the way of national improvement." P. 306.

There remain to be noticed, in the volume under review, one or two other important communications to the Asiatic Society, which, as this article is already too prolonged, shall be detailed in our next number, together with the whole of what is valuable and useful in the 7th volume, which has only recently been placed on our table.

ART.

ART. VIII. *Letters to a young Lady, on a Courſe of Engliſh Poetry. By J. Aikin, M.D.* 12mo. 197 pp. 4s. Johnſon. 1804.

IF the knowledge and taſte of Dr. Aikin, in the poetry of his country, had not already been proved by various publications, theſe Letters would alone ſuffice to diſplay thoſe qualifications in a very favourable light. By the eaſieſt and moſt judicious ſteps he conducts his fair pupil, (whom by the mode of addreſs we ſhould ſuppoſe to be ſome near relative) through every claſs of Engliſh poetry; explaining the nature and peculiarities of each, and illuſtrating his remarks by the moſt appoſite citations. He begins with Pope, as the great maſter of verſification, but without concluding his remarks on that poet, proceeds to Dryden, Waller, Addiſon, and Swift. The reaſon for this tranſition is ſatisfactory. After ſpeaking of ſome poems of Pope remarkable for the beauty of verſification, Dr. A. ſays, if you read theſe,'

" You will have acquired a full perception of the melody of verſification, and the clearneſs and ſplendour of diction, which are ſome of the moſt eſſential qualities of fine poetry. And having gained this point, I think it adviſible no longer to confine you to this one writer, leſt, faſcinated by his beauties, you fix your taſte ſo excluſively upon him, as to regard every deviation from his manner as a defect. You will therefore lay him down for the preſent, and in my next letter I will introduce you to ſome of his competitors in poetic fame". P. 18.

This is undoubtedly proceeding like a wiſe preceptor. In the ſeventh Letter he returns to Pope, and, for a reaſon, not quite ſo clear, begins with his tranſlations of Homer. The following account of the ſtyle and character of that work is juſt and clear.

" Pope's tranſlations of Homer have always been eſteemed as firſt-rate performances of the kind; and indeed, no poetical verſions ſurpaſs them in beauty of verſification and elegance and ſplendour of diction. They are faithful, too, as far as to the ſubſtance of the originals; they neither omit nor add circumſtances of narrative or ſimiles, and they adhere to the general ſenſe of the Greek in ſpeeches and ſentiments. But with reſpect to the dreſs and colouring, it muſt be confeſſed that Pope and Homer differ in all the points that diſcriminate the writers of an age of refinement from thoſe of an age of ſimplicity. The antient bard, though lofty in his diction where the ſubject is elevated, relates common things in plain language, is ſometimes coarſe and frequently dry, and has many paſſages which exhibit nothing of the poet but a ſonorous verſification. The tranſlator, on the other hand, never forgets that he is to ſupport the dignity of modern heroics: and though he has too much judgment to ſcatter ornament with a laviſh hand; yet, to ſoften what is harſh, to raiſe what is low, to enrich

rich what is poor, and to animate what is inſipid, are accommodations to a cultivated taſte which he does not ſcruple to employ.*

"The *manner* of Homer is therefore loſt in Pope's repreſentation of him; and one whoſe object is to know how a poet wrote three thouſand years ago, muſt have recourſe to ſome verſion formed upon different principles: of this kind a very good one has been given by the late excellent and lamented Cowper. But as an Engliſh poem, Pope's is certainly an admirable work; and you will derive from it all the inſtruction on account of which I am now principally recommending it, while at the ſame time you are improving your reliſh for the beauties of verſe". P. 78.

The eighth Letter proceeds with Young and Hammond. In the ninth he opens the ſubject of blank verſe, which is purſued in the tenth, compriſing an account of the principal works of Milton. The imitators of Milton introduce the ſubject of Didactic Poetry. In the fourteenth Letter the preceptor returns to rhyme, beginning with the Lyric poetry of Gray. As there cannot be a complete coincidence of ſentiments, we are inclined to think that Dr. A. too much depreciates the Odes of Akenſide, as he had before too highly extolled his blank verſe. Allegorical Poetry is treated in the ſixteenth Letter, and the Witty Poets in the ſeventeenth. The remaining three Letters are rather miſcellaneous, and contain an account of ſome modern poets.

Both the plan and the execution of theſe letters appear to us judicious. They are ſufficiently methodical, without ſtiffneſs; and the tranſitions are eaſy and unaffected. We are very ſeldom inclined to differ from the author in his critical opinions, and think him in many inſtances particularly happy in the expreſſion of them. The following character of Goldſmith's ſtyle ſeems highly to deſerve this commendation.

"It is not derogatory to the merit of Goldſmith's poetry that it is calculated to pleaſe the general taſte. The qualities by which it effects this purpoſe are, remarkable clearneſs and perſpicuity of ſtyle; a natural unaffected diction that rejects every artifice of ſpeech which has been employed to force up language into poetry by remoteneſs from common uſe; and a warmth, energy, and variety, which never ſuffer the attention to languiſh. His imagery is all taken from human life and natural objects; and though frequently new to the generality of readers, is eaſily comprehended. His ſentiments, if not always accurately juſt, are ſuch as obtain ready admiſſion, and find ſomething correſpondent in every breaſt. The nervous conciſeneſs with which they are expreſſed imprints them on the memory, while the melodious flow of his verſe gratifies the ear, and aids the impreſſion". P. 65.

Dr. A.'s Letters will doubtleſs have the honour of introducing many elegant females to a juſt acquaintance with the

* See a very ſimilar judgment, in *Blair's Lectures*, vol. iii. p. 244. *Rev.*

poets

poets of their native country; and though we think he has in one instance too far palliated the immorality of a most seductive poem*, we have no difficulty in pronouncing him in general a safe and a judicious guide.

ART. IX. *Observations on the Change of Public Opinion in Religion, Politics, and Medicine; on the Conduct of the War; on the prevailing Diseases in Great Britain; and on Medical Arrangements in the Army and Navy. By John Millar, M. D.* 2 vols. 4to. 3l. 13s. 6d. London printed, but no Publisher's Name, nor any Date, either in the Title-page, Dedication, or Preface.

RELIGION and politics seem to have no proper connexion with a treatise on diseases; yet the author of the present work has not scrupled to blend them together, most copiously, in his first volume; and in so doing, he has produced a strange medley, which few persons, we imagine, will have patience to read. He complains bitterly of neglect from personages high in office, to whom he had presented memorials, suggesting what he conceived to be improvements in the medical departments of the army and navy. As he has not yet thought fit to publish these new plans, we are left in total uncertainty as to their merit or demerit; yet we think it highly presumable that they were not adopted by ministers, because they were not calculated to produce those advantages, which the author himself fondly attached to them. In addition to the author's remonstrances and lamentations on these topics, the first volume also contains some observations on the medical systems of Cullen and Brown, which last writer he accuses of borrowing many ideas from his (Dr. Millar's) Observations on the Diseases of Great Britain. He points out similar plagiarisms in Dr. Jones's Inquiry into the State of Medicine.

With the exception of the reply to Dr. Monro, contained in the Appendix, the second volume consists wholly of medical subjects, and is divided into three Parts. Part I. treats of inflammatory diseases, viz. pleurisy, peripneumony, hepatitis, and ileus, under which term he comprehends inflammation of the intestines. Part II. treats of putrid fevers, and particularly of the remitting fever, (with a review of the history of fevers, and of the various opinions concerning them); also of

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* Pope, Epistle of Eloisa, p. 81.

dysentery.

dyſentery. In Part III. he treats of diſeaſes which partake both of a putrid and inflammatory nature, viz. rheumatiſm and puerperal fever. Then follow three Appendixes, of which No. I. contains tranſlations of ſome later quotations, &c. No. II. a tranſlation of ſome Latin Preſcriptions; and No. III. a gloſſary, explaining the terms of art.

Paſſing over the other diſeaſes deſcribed in this volume, we ſhall confine our remarks to the author's account of the remitting fever. Under this term, he ſeems to comprehend the typhus fever of modern noſologiſts. After deſcribing the ſymptoms, and ſhowing the diagnoſtics and prognoſtics, he proceeds to lay down the method of cure. He tells us, that when he firſt ſet out in practice, (on the ſuppoſition that all fevers are accompanied with ſome degree of inflammation) he generally let blood in the beginning; gave a vomit and ſome gentle laxative, and afterwards antimonial and nitrous medicines, with ſaline draughts and mild diaphoretics; but being at length convinced of the inutility or injury of this mode of practice, he abandoned it, and adopted in its ſtead another and a different method of treatment, "which, conſidering the imperfection of the healing art, hath been attended with as much ſucceſs as could reaſonably be expected". This other method conſiſts in the early and free adminiſtration of the bark. This he preſcribes, *without regard to a remiſſion*, in every fever which is not accompanied with evident ſigns of local inflammation; and after having uſed it in this manner for ſeveral years, in the courſe of a very extenſive practice, he has been fully convinced of its value, and of the futility of the arguments by which it has been condemned. He directs the bark to be taken in large doſes, viz. two drachms once in four hours, repeated till it produces the deſired effect. He adds, that a ſmall quantity of claret or port ſhould be taken along with the bark. He admits, however, that when the pulſe is full and frequent, the ſkin hot and dry, &c. a diaphoreſis ſhould be firſt excited; that where the patient is diſtreſſed by nauſea and vomits, theſe ſymptoms ſhould be firſt removed by other medicines; that where there is diarrhæa, anodynes and aſtringents ſhould be employed; that where hæmorrhages come on, the vitriolic acid ſhould be given; and that throughout the whole treatment, the patient's apartment ſhould be well ventilated, and cooling drinks, &c. be allowed.

This method is doubtleſs very well adapted to the cure of intermitting fevers, which the author (not without much confuſion) ſeems to compriſe, together with continued fevers, under the vague denomination of remitting fever; but that it is equally adapted to the cure of typhus in general, and in the manner

manner directed by this writer, we by no means allow. On the contrary, we are fully perſuaded that in the majority of fever caſes, (not belonging to the claſs of intermittents) all the ſymptoms would be aggravated by the method here recommended. Happy, indeed, would it be for mankind, if the treatment of contagious fever were as ſimple and as certain as Dr. M. repreſents it to be; but alas! the experience of ages demonſtrates the contrary. An inverſion, however, of this method (which is only a moderate degree of Brunonianiſm) may be ſafely recommended; that is to ſay, we may with propriety *end* the treatment of typhus (or, as he terms it, remittent fever) in the manner in which Dr. M. *begins*; for ſuch a tonic plan is certainly well ſuited to the removal of the debility and inaction which invariably occur during the progreſs, and in the decline of ſuch kinds of fever.

ART. X. *Initia Paulina, ſive Introductio ad Lectionem Pauli Epiſtolarum, continens,* 1. *Pauli Epiſtolam ad Philipp. Græcè et Anglicè, cum brevibus notis Kuttneri;* 2. *Theophylacti proœmia Epiſtolarum;* 3. *Ejuſdem interpretationem Epiſtolæ ad Philipp.* 4. *Roſenmulleri Scholia ad Eandem. Quibus præeunt Kuttneri Obſervata de idiomatibus Novi Teſtamenti.* 12mo. 336 pp. 3s. Rivingtons, &c. 1804.

THE title-page, though full, does not entirely enumerate the contents of this uſeful volume. Beſides what is there mentioned, it contains, 5. Excerptum ex H. Stephani Diſſertatione de Stylo Novi Teſtamenti; 6. Excerpta ex Th. Gatakeri Diſſ. de Novi Inſtrumenti Stylo: thus collecting ſome of the moſt valuable illuſtrations of the ſtyle of St. Paul's Epiſtles, that can be offered to the attention of the ſtudent.

Though the name of the compiler is not affixed to this publication, we believe we are not wrong in attributing it to the Biſhop of St. David's, to whoſe habits and diſpoſition it is well ſuited, thus condeſcendingly to lead others by the hand, to the acquirement of that knowledge which he ſo eminently poſſeſſes. We have ſeen his Engliſh Catechiſms, ſo well adapted to various purpoſes of inſtruction; and we ſhould naturally expect that he would thus extend his care to thoſe who are beginning to ſtudy, in the original language, ſome of the moſt difficult, but, at the ſame time, moſt important parts of the New Teſtament.

Deeply verſed in the writings of the moſt learned divines, foreign as well as domeſtic, Biſhop B. has collected, from the former more particularly, as leſs acceſſible in this country, ſome of the moſt learned illuſtrations of the ſtyle of St. Paul, and of the New Teſtament in general. From what ſources he has principally drawn, may be ſeen from the explanation which he gives of his letters of reference. The names which here occur are thoſe which he juſtly calls "clariſſima et veneranda", of C. L. Baver, J. A. Dathius, J. A. Erneſti, J. F. Fiſher, G. D. Kypkius, I. T. Krebſius, and C. F. Schmidius. To theſe he adds Koerner, who has written a continued Comment on the whole New Teſtament; Glaſſius, author of the Philologia Sacra, which Dathius has republiſhed and improved; Vorſſius, Loeſner, Koppius, and Wolfius; beſides J. G. Roſenmuller, whoſe Scholia on the Philippians are entirely reprinted. It will be evident to every ſcholar, that this liſt of names points to a library of interpreters, poſſeſſed entire by very few divines in Great Britain; and, conſequently, that to mark them for the ſearch, and introduce their obſervations to the knowledge of Britiſh ſtudents, is to render a moſt important ſervice to ſacred literature.

The eſſence of much ſtudy in the learned comments of theſe authors is compreſſed in the firſt part of this volume, for which the reader is obliged to the labours of the learned G. Kuttner: namely, the forty-three obſervations prefixed to the Epiſtle itſelf. Theſe may be conſidered as rules of interpretation, extracted from the beſt commentators, and ſo digeſted as to form an admirable introduction to the accurate ſtudy of St. Paul's Epiſtles, and to be always ready for uſe and reference. The nature of theſe obſervations will be beſt illuſtrated by inſerting a ſmall ſpecimen of them. They may appear at firſt obſcure, from the grammatical or logical terms introduced to generalize the maxims, but will amply repay the labour of ſtudying and applying them.

" I. In verbis disjunctorum, ſive ſubjecti ſive prædicati locum teneant, unius interpretatio ad ſenſum alterius recte cogniti accurate dirigi debet. Ex hoc genere ſunt σὰρξ et πνεῦμα, item γράμμα et πνεῦμα, in quibus alterius ad alterum accommodanda eſt interpretatio. Vid. S. V. Erneſti Inſt. Interp. Edit. 3. p. 24.

" II. Cavendum eſt,

" α. ne in verbo ipſo et ejus vel propria vel tropica ſignificatione emphaſin quæramus. Vid. F. P. VIII.

" β. nec adeo quærenda eſt ex etymologia.

" γ. porro vi[illegible]ndum, ne acceſſionem aliquam ſignificationis ad vim verbi ſimplicis neceſſario fieri putemus a præpoſitionibus, præſertim, ἀνὰ, ἀπὸ, ἐκ, περὶ, πρὸ, σὺν. Ad compoſitorum claſſem, in quibus præpoſitionis

poſitionis vis nulla eſt, pertinent, ἀνθομολογέομαι, ἀνάγω, ἀνανήφω, ἀναξαιρέω, ἀναπλαπληρόω, ἀποκαραδοκία, διαγογγύζω, διακωλύω, διαπέλλομαι, διατηρέω, ἐγκομβόομαι, ἐκβάλλω, ἐκπορνεύω, καθεξουσιάζω, καθαγνιεύω, καθαφιλέω, καθαχράομαι, προαιρέω, προγινώσκω, προελπίζω, προενάρχομαι, προσαπατίθημι, προσεργάζομαι, συμμαρτυρέω, συνωδίνω, συσταυρόω. Vid. I. T. Krebſii Præf. ad Lex. Schoettg.

" δ. ne a numeris emphaſin temere ducamus. Sine emphaſi uſurpantur in N. T. plurali numero pro ſingulari poſito, vocabula hæc: οἱ αἰῶνες mundus, ἀνατολαὶ καὶ δυσμοὶ, τὰ ἱμάτια, οἱ οὐρανοὶ, τὰ σάββατα, οἱ οἰκτιρμοὶ. Vid. Gl. Ph. pp. 62-65.

" ε. ne abſtracti pro concreto poſiti talem aliquam vim putemus, v. c. Col. 1. 13. coll. Matth. 3, 17.

" ζ. ne diſſimilitudine modorum loquendi a noſtra lingua ad emphaſin quærendam aut comminiſcendam impellamur. Vid. E. I. 70, 71.

" III. Emphaſes temporariæ agnoſcuntur hac nota, ſi ordinaria verbi ſignificatio eſt longe inferior manifeſta affectus magnitudine aut re ipſa. E. I. p. 72.

" IV. Diminutivorum interdum nulla alia vis eſt, quam primitivorum. Ex hoc genere ſunt ἀρνίον, ἰχθύδιον, ὀνάριον, παιδίον, ὠτίον.

" V. Exprimitur adjectivum ſ. participium

" α. per duo ſubſtantiva connexa, quorum alterum loco adjectivi eſt. 2 Petr. 1, 3.

" β. per abſtractum pro concreto poſitum, Eph. 5, 8.

" γ. per duo nomina in ſtatu reginiinis, quorum alterum loco adjectivi eſt. Quando poſterius ſubſtantivum poſitum eſt pro adjectivo pronomen poſſeſſionem vel relationem ſignificans, in hac conſtructione plerumque adjicitur poſteriori, cum pertineat potius ad nomen prius, Col. 1, xiii.

" δ. per ſubſtantivum cum præpoſitione. Huic uſui inſerviunt præſertim, ἐκ, ἐν, κατὰ, v. c. 2 Cor. 2. vii. ἐν μυστηρίῳ, h. e. μυστικήν.

" ε. per adverbium ſubſtantivo additum, Matth. 6, xxxiv. G. Ph. pp. 18—22.

" VI. Articulus ὁ, ἡ, τὸ, ſæpe quidem ſine certo ſignificatu nominibus additur, non raro tamen demonſtrativi vel relativi pronominis vim habet. Gl. Ph. 131.

" VII. Nominativus et accuſativus in oratione quandoque ponuntur abſolute, ut vim integri membri in ſententia habeant, idque fit in N. T. ex hebrææ linguæ conſuetudine. Nec tamen hæc conſtructio ita propria eſt linguis orientalibus, ut eam græca lingua prorſus ignoret, Act. vii. 40. Non raro etiam nominativus pro vocativo uſurpatur, et articulus, ὁ, ἡ, τὸ, adjectus tum dicitur vocativus ſ. patheticus. Gl. Ph. 67—70." P. xiii.

The care and acuteneſs with which theſe obſervations have been drawn up cannot be too much commended. In preſenting at once to the ſtudent thoſe general concluſions, at which he could not otherwiſe have arrived, but by long and diligent ſtudy, Kuttner has himſelf done well; and our next thanks are due to the preſent editor, who has thus given them

circulation among us. As only a very few lines of Preface are prefixed to this volume, we are not informed why the Epiſtle to the Philippians was particularly ſelected as the key to the reſt of St. Paul's writings. It was, perhaps, chiefly becauſe its length was moderate, and thereby enabled the learned editor to compriſe a variety of illuſtrations within the compaſs of a ſmall volume; while, at the ſame time, it is not too ſhort to give a ſufficient view of the ſtyle and manner of the writer.

The Epiſtle immediately follows the obſervations already cited, and is printed with the Greek on one ſide, and the Engliſh on the other; ſhort notes in Latin being continued through both pages. For theſe notes the ſtudent is alſo obliged to the labour of G. Kuttner; and they will be found, though conciſe, abundantly illuſtrative of the phraſeology of the original text, to which they are chiefly confined. The arguments of Theophylact are ſubjoined, in Greek only; which, as his language is not obſcure, will not be any impediment to the ſtudent. Though this Archbiſhop lived ſo late as the eleventh century, yet as he was well verſed in the theological writings of his predeceſſors, his interpretations and arguments are conſidered as valuable. The argument to the Epiſtle to the Philippians will not be found in its place among the Epiſtles, but is immediately prefixed to his comment. We mention this, becauſe we at firſt ſuppoſed it to be omitted, and wiſh to prevent others from making the ſame miſtake. The commentary is continued throughout the Epiſtle, giving an explanation of every word and ſentence. As the interpretations of the Greek theologians are, in general, contained in ponderous folios, which few conſult, and ſtill fewer endeavour to poſſeſs, it may be of great ſervice thus to give a taſte of their mode of illuſtration, which may naturally excite the wiſh for a further acquaintance with them. In the margin are various readings, or, more frequently, notices of very corrupt readings, which the editor has found it neceſſary to correct as he went on.

The Scholia of J. G. Roſenmuller on the whole New Teſtament, are better known to Engliſh ſtudents in general, than the works of other German theologians. They have been much, and, we think, in general deſervedly approved. They to whom they have been hitherto unknown, will underſtand their manner and ſpirit from this ſpecimen. The addition of the extracts from H. Stephens and Gataker on the ſtyle of the New Teſtament was evidently an after-thought, the word FINIS, and the notice of the printer's name being placed before them at p. 203. The thought, however, was happy; and the acuteneſs of Gataker, in his anſwers to the three queſtions

tions of Pfochenius, cannot fail to give pleaſure to every competent enquirer. The queſtions of Pfochenius were, "1. Whether the text of the New Teſtament is truly Greek, and not very remote from the ſtyle of profane Greek writers? 2. Whether Homer, Pindar, Plato, Demoſthenes, Iſocrates, &c. if they could revive, would underſtand the New Teſtament? 3. Whether the language of the New Teſtament ought to be called *Græcanic*, *Helleniſtic*, or *Græcienſian*, that is, like Greek?" The latter, being merely a queſtion of names, is diſmiſſed almoſt untouched; the other two, which is intereſting, are diſcuſſed with care.

There can be no doubt, that ſtudents at all anxious to make a proficiency in ſacred learning will eagerly receive this volume, which certainly contains as much edifying matter as can well be compriſed within ſo ſmall a compaſs; and is admirably calculated to encourage and augment the deſire for examining the beſt commentators on the Scriptures.

ART. XI. *The Poetical Regiſter, and Repoſitory for Fugitive Poetry, for* 1803. 8vo. 468 pp. 9s. Rivingtons. 1804.

WE have already had occaſion to expreſs ourſelves favourably of the plan, as well as the execution, of this very entertaining Miſcellany, and we are happy to perceive, that ſo far from finding any relaxation in the Editor's exertions, the preſent volume appears before us with increaſed ſpirit and energy. The Editor divides the poetry into two diſtinct parts, Original and Fugitive, and though it would be an endleſs taſk to recapitulate even the names of thoſe, who have generouſly lent their aſſiſtance to this undertaking, the following will be no unſatisfactory ſpecimens of the general merits of this truly elegant and pleaſing publication.

"LINES BY WILLIAM PRESTON,

On the lamented and untimely Death of his Son, William Preſton the Younger, who was killed at the Battle of Delhi, in the twenty-firſt Year of his Age.

With every tide, with every wind,
I watch'd the tardy ſail from *Ind*;
While, ſtill reviving, ſtill delay'd
Hope on the ſicken'd ſpirit prey'd,

I caught,

I caught, with fond impatience wild,
At every rumour of my child.—
At length it comes—the tardy ſail
With news of carnage loads the gale.
Oh ſtroke, that I muſt long deplore!
My Son, my *William*, is no more—
Among the heroic ſlain he lies—
And who has heard his parting ſighs?
As, ſinking on the plain, he bled,
What hand ſuſtain'd his drooping head?
What pious accents chear'd his death?
What Friend received his parting breath?
In pomp decay'd, where *Delhi*'s wall
Appears to mourn an Empire's fall,
Where Palaces, their ſplendor gone,
Are tottering o'er th' imperial Throne,
And monuments of *Timur's* race
Are mouldering thro' the dreary ſpace;
Oh, welt'ring to the torrid ſky,
How many youthful corſes lie,
So late the gallant and the brave,
Now, wretched earth denied a grave!
Where *Jumna*, ſpreading o'er the plain,
Beholds his current choak'd with ſlain,
The fatal field with gore is red.—
What tongue laments the valiant dead?
What eyelids pour the pitying tear?
What hands the funeral pile uprear?
The Vulture's ſcream, and Eagle's cries—
Are theſe, my ſon, thy obſequies?—
Oh, far remote, unheard, and low
From drooping eyes, the ſorrows flow.
While rapine wild and faithleſs deed
Ordain the victim hoſt to bleed,
The gentle ſiſter, conſtant wife,
The parent fond, muſt mourn the ſtrife.
What airy phantoms had I chac'd!
What fond illuſions fancy trac'd!
For ever hid in chearleſs gloom!
Subſided all within the tomb!
To heights ideal I purſu'd
The fair endowments that I view'd,
And ſaw them win the virtuous praiſe,
Too rarely ſought in modern days,
And ſure the talents of my ſon
In arts, and arms, the palm had won;
Had Heaven enlarg'd his narrow ſpan
To full maturity of man—
With judgment ripe beyond his age
He turn'd each bright immortal page:

In

In early youth, the claſſic hoard
His mind with high conceptions ſtor'd,
From precept and example brought
By Sages, and by Heroes taught—
He felt the power of lofty rhyme
To waken thoughts, and aims ſublime.
The kindling eye, the conſcious breaſt,
The forms of good and fair confeſt,
The produce of his youthful vein
Gave earneſt of poetic ſtrain,
And true to ſymmetry and grace
His eye could juſt proportion trace:
With glance as rapid as his mind,
While Fancy all he ſaw combin'd,
And bade his artiſt hand pourtray
The charms, that Nature's works diſplay.
Oh! how unlike the youth we meet,
That crowd the theatre and ſtreet!
The vain luxurious, heartleſs brood,
Without a *mark* or *likelihood*—
By Folly harneſs'd to her car,
The bane of Peace, unapt for War:
He ſcorn'd the poor purſuits and plays,
The trivial aims of boyiſh days;
To feel the high, heroic flame,
A manly rank with men to claim,
To feel each energy of thought
For well he wrote, and bravely fought,
He did not live, his courſe to guide,
By precepts, claſſic lore ſupplied;
Yet nobly prodigal of breath,
He learn'd from them—contempt of death.——
Scarce conſcious where, I liſtleſs range,
In change of place, to find no change,
While every ſmiling cheek I view
Bids all my ſorrows riſe anew;
And every face that happy ſhows
Appears to triumph in my woes.
Ev'n objects deareſt to my heart,
With ev'ry charm, a pang impart.
Oft as I ſee the ſun ariſe,
The tear ſhall gliſten in my eyes
For him, that ſought an orient clime,
To periſh in the youthful prime,
And fancy ſtill behold thy fall,
And ſtill thy youthful form recall.—
Has life prolong'd her liſtleſs dream,
My Son, to make thy death my theme;
To pour the weak enervate verſe,
Unworthy off'ring, on thy hearſe?

For me remains the mournful pride
To think my Son has bravely died,
That if he fell in youthful prime
His name was never ſtain'd with crime;
And happier, ſure, the parent's doom
Whoſe Son is honour'd in the tomb,
Than his who mourns a worthleſs race
In life continued, for diſgrace;
To link diſhonour with a name,
And tinge a Father's cheek with ſhame." P. 62.

We inſert the following production from the pen of Theophilus Swift, Eſq. whoſe poetical effuſions we have often ſeen, and frequently had occaſion to admire. It is on a ſubject leſs melancholy, though not much leſs ably executed than the foregoing.

"TO A LADY, WITH A PRESENT OF VIOLETS.

Theſe Violets to my fair I bring,
The purple progeny of Spring;
Nor thou, dear Girl, the gift refuſe,
Love's earlieſt tribute, to the Muſe.

Whate'er has beauty, worth, or power
Or grace, or luſtre, is a flower.
Wit is a flower, and bards prepare
The flowers of Fancy, for the fair.
In flower of Youth, the Loves appear,
Leading in flowery youth the year;
And Beauty's flowery fetters bind,
In ſweet captivity the mind.
With flowers the Graces Venus deck,
And theſe adorn a fairer neck;
That neck whoſe paradiſe to range,
A flower I'd prove and bleſs the change;
One little hour I'd live—then die—
A violet in that heaven to lie.

Still as you charm, ſome flower we trace,
Some bloſſom of the mind or face.
Does Laura lead the courtly dance?
We hail the *Flower of Elegance.*
Does Faſhion's wreath adorn her brow?
The *Flower of Taſte* is Laura now.
In Laura's mien, in Laura's mind,
The twin-born *Flowers of Grace* we find;
And in her bluſhing cheek, we ſee
The *Royal Roſe of Dignity.*
Yon Lily, ſymbol of her youth,
Blooms next her heart the *Flower of Truth.*

Oh,

Oh, might theſe violet buds expreſs,
The opening *Flower of Tenderneſs!*

But not the brighteſt flower of Spring,
That Fancy paints, or poets ſing;
Nor theſe, nor all the ſweets that blow,
The Roſe's bluſh, the Lily's ſnow,
With thee in excellence compare,
Or breathe ſo freſh, or bloom ſo fair,
For in thy boſom lives a flower,
Not Time ſhall ſpoil, nor Death devour,
A flower that no rude ſeaſon fears,
And VIRTUE's ſacred name it bears." P. 139.

Our readers will peruſe with pleaſure the following beautiful Poem from the pen of Dr. Shaw, though it has appeared alſo in other miſcellanies.

" *On a Butterfly, which came forth from its Chryſalis in a Lady's Hand.*

Born in Aſpaſia's ſoft'ring hand,
My finiſh'd form I firſt diſplay'd,
And felt my plumy wings expand,
While gazing on the beauteous maid.

No ſunſhine glow'd upon the ſcene,
With kindly warmth thoſe wings to dry;
Yet fair each painted pinion grew
Beneath the luſtre of her eye.

No zephyr roſe with gentle gale,
To fill my infant frame with air;
But, fann'd by fair Aſpaſia's breath,
The zephyr's gale I well might ſpare.

No roſe or lily near me grew,
On which my downy limbs might reſt;
But theſe in brighter tints I found
Upon the virgin's cheek and breaſt.

Thus Nature, with indulgent care,
Propitious grac'd my natal hour;
And with ſuperior ſweetneſs gave
The gale, the ſunſhine, and the flow'r!" P. 292.

We ſhould ſubjoin many more ſpecimens equally pleaſing and intereſting; but we are fearful of exceeding our regular limits. For the omiſſion of Poetical Biography the Editor again makes uſe of a very ſufficient apology—a want of proper materials. His difficulty being however partly removed, the deficiency, we are informed, will be ſupplied in the next volume.

ART.

ART. XII. *Eſſays on Agriculture; with a Plan for the ſpeedy and general Improvement of Land in Great Britain. By Benjamin Bell, Fellow of the Royal Society of Edinburgh, &c.* 8vo. 594 pp. 9s. Bell and Bradfute, Edinburgh; Robinſons, London; Archer, Dublin. 1802.

VARIOUS ſpeculations, on different topics of political œconomy, are here offered to the public. To a ſober-minded critic, who has turned his attention to ſuch ſubjects, the word *ſpeedy* is inauſpicious. It ſeems to be a deſideratum in the mechaniſm of the adminiſtration of nations; where many will write what few deſire to read; that, among the departments which divide and ſubdivide the labour of government, a project-office has never been eſtabliſhed. If the French Convention had thought of this, any one of the 32,000 plans for reſtoring their finances (which probably none but their authors ever looked at) might have ſaved them: for, like thoſe which are civilly received, and ſo unluckily neglected by Britiſh Miniſters, *all of them* were *infallible*, and probably moſt of them were *ſpeedy*. If, as it is, we blunder forwards in the road of improvement, and ſtumble on proſperity; how *ſpeedy* would be the progreſs, if an *office* were provided; where, *inter oſcitandum*, (for ſurely, they would ſeldom wake, but to yawn;) a few hundreds of clerks were provided, to ſelect ſome of the many receipts which would enrich a nation, almoſt as ſoon, in the opinion of their authors, as the wonderful lamp of *Aladdin*.

Mr. Bell's work has ſome appearance of being an appeal from ſuch miniſterial neglect, as we have intimated, to the public opinion; for it ſeems, that moſt of its materials had been offered to the adminiſtration, in the ſhape of *memorials*. It might have been paſſed by with the very trite remark, *ſunt bona, ſunt quædam mediocria, ſunt mala plura*; if it were not, that the ſubjects of which he treats have moſt of them very much engaged the public attention. An accident has much longer than uſual delayed this review; but ſome of the topics in Mr. Bell's work are again become particularly intereſting.

The author informs us, that, though he was practiſing as a Surgeon at Edinburgh, yet a love of Agriculture had induced him to make it his only recreation; and that he has long occupied a large farm. He adds, that "few have enjoyed better opportunities of becoming acquainted with the national agriculture." Who, that reads this, would expect Eſſays on

on Income-Tax; the National Debt; Funds; and the Sale of Land-Tax? But, till another volume ſhall be called for, we muſt not profit by his experience acquired on his farm at Melroſe, or in his travels into England.

The Preface, of 44 pages, being chiefly employed in repeating the obſervations that are more dilated in the body of the work, we may be excuſed from any particular notice of it.

In the firſt Eſſay, on the late Income-Tax, there are many very ſenſible remarks on the general theories of direct and indirect taxation; together with objections to ſeveral of the regulations which were on that occaſion adopted. Mr. Bell is an advocate for a direct tax on the *public funds;* judiciouſly diſapproves of the exemptions and abatements which were allowed; and of the eſtimating farming-profit according to the rent: thinks (with truth) that incomes between 200l. and 500l. a year are now moſt heavily burthened in the general ſyſtem of taxation; and is an advocate for extending the ſyſtem of an income-tax, differently conſtructed to all ranks; and in ſuch a degree, as to be a ſubſtitution for moſt other exiſting taxes, by a produce of *twenty-ſix millions ſterling a year!* He eſtimates the total national income, (including the value of labour) at 243,000,000l.; of which he calculates that 75 millions belong to two millions five hundred thouſand perſons of the loweſt claſſes; this he would aſſeſs at one twelfth; and all other, at one eighth. Mr. Bell's plan would therefore exact *one ſhilling per week* from every labourer having twelve ſhillings per week wages! and (excluſive of many inferior objections, which might be urged) he himſelf will, perhaps, be thought to have unequivocally, though inadvertently, demonſtrated the impracticability of his own plan, by an argument which (ſtrange to ſay) is adduced (p. 40) againſt *taxes on conſumption!*

" Beſides (ſays he) in the payment of taxes on conſumption, the difficulty is increaſed by the expenſive manner in which they are every where levied; chiefly the effect of the great number of people employed in collecting them; by *which, the irritation which in ſome countries takes place yearly on the tax-gatherers going round, is ſuch, that nothing but a ſtrong military force can prevent the people of every cloſs from ſetting them at defiance; an occurrence which all who wiſh well to their country muſt anxiouſly hope may never take place in it.*"

To prevent this evil, we have only to ſubſtitute *direct taxation!* inſtead of taxes on conſumption; to compel (if we can) two millions and a half *of the lower claſſes* to ſave, annually, about fifty ſhillings for the tax-gatherer; in addition to about a million, who now pay direct taxes; and to contrive, that

that they ſhall alſo be patriotic enough, to pay without murmuring a twelfth part of their incomes when called upon. Certainly, an infallible cure for the *irritation* occaſioned by *taxes on conſumption!* reſpecting which, we were ignorant enough to ſuppoſe, that (excepting in a few very inſignificant inſtances) they are, in general, in all countries conſolidated with the price, concealed from notice by that circumſtance, and therefore (in general) paid with leſs diſcontent than others; though we muſt admit that they may be extended ſo far as to become a great political evil. But, hear this author (p. 31, 32.)

"Taxes on conſumption, being neceſſarily placed on articles daily uſed, and under every man's obſervation, often collected ſeparately from the original coſt of the articles, and amounting in ſome caſes to more than their original value, have commonly given riſe to more diſcontent than the ſame ſum would, if raiſed in a different manner."

The object of the ſecond Eſſay is, to ſhow the miſchiefs of a heavy national debt; to recommend more efficacious means for diminiſhing the load with which we are burthened; and to enforce the expediency of having recourſe, in war as well as in peace, to taxes, of which the produce may be commenſurate with the annual expenditure. Much of what he has ſaid, on theſe ſubjects, is judicious, and well worthy of attention, and we regret that we cannot give equal praiſe to the remedy which he recommends for an evil, the exiſtence of which will hardly be denied by any perſons, who are aware of all the political difficulties that reſult from it.

Mr. Bell, taking it for granted that it will be eaſy to raiſe twenty-ſix millions a year by his former plan, would apply a part of that ſum to increaſe our preſent redeeming fund; and, in order to facilitate its operation, he would give to the government the right of pre-emption, either on paying ſixty pounds, at all times, for each hundred pounds of three per cent. ſtock; or elſe, the price which the actual holder might have given for it (whether more or leſs at that rate) before the adoption of this new regulation.

It has been remarked, that the Engliſh, though not altogether guiltleſs, have been more moderate in their frauds reſpecting money, than any other nation. We have only reduced the *pound* to a third part of its antient value; while our neighbours in France reduced it to about a ſeventieth. Thus, our author is not prepared to recommend their *tiers conſolidées*; but only, to imitate them at a diſtance. It is unneceſſary to enumerate the practical objections, which will inſtantly

inſtantly occur to any one at all converſant with the nature of the tranſactions in our funds; and, if theſe did not exiſt, we might content ourſelves with remarking, that no convenience can ever be wiſely obtained by any act of injuſtice.

A conſiderable part of this Eſſay is employed in objections to the redemption of the Land-tax; which would have more force, if that meaſure were not altogether *optional*. Without expecting that its redemption would be very rapid, after the effect ſhould be worn away of the eloquence by which it was recommended, we have, nevertheleſs, always conſidered that meaſure as one of the beſt-timed and the wiſeſt of Mr. Pitt's very able adminiſtration; and this, for many reaſons, relating to its immediate effect, which was without doubt extremely beneficial; and to its remoter conſequences. Many of Mr. Bell's objections may be effectually anſwered, by obſerving, that no one has a temptation to neglect the improvement of his property by cultivation, for the ſake of purchaſing his land-tax; unleſs the latter will pay to him a better intereſt than the former would pay; and, that in fact, a very large proportion of the land-owners go to make up the 200,000 proprietors of our funds, which we have reaſon to believe is at leaſt the number among whom they are divided; and alſo, that many others were tempted to cut down timber for this purpoſe, which otherwiſe would have been ſuffered to periſh in the places where it grew. Mr. Bell, reverting to the chief object of this Eſſay, obſerves,

"Even the largeſt holders of ſtock would not ultimately be hurt by it, and would not therefore complain of it; for, however much they may hitherto have been afraid of whatever might leſſen the price of the funds; and although the reduction of the funds is an eſſential part of the plan that I have propoſed, and in a very important degree would be the effect of it; yet, reſting on the arguments that I have detailed in this and the preceding Eſſay, which have now been fully confirmed by the proſperous ſtate in which the nation has continued for many years paſt, while the funds have been uncommonly low; I can with much confidence venture to predict, inſtead of harm being to enſue from a further reduction of the funds, that the moſt beneficial effects will reſult from it, if in any conſiderable degree it ſhall ever take place." P. 239.

We are not quite ſo ſanguine, as to believe with this author, that the ſtockholders would neither be hurt, nor complain, at the adoption of a project, which would deprive them of two fifths of their nominal capitals; or, that they would maintain their uſual value during war, if chance remained of their improvement on the return of peace.

The

The *third* Eſſay is on the Improvement of Agriculture. The author begins it with ſuggeſting, that the land-tax ought to be *repealed* inſtead of being *redeemed*, which would be convenient enough for the land-owners of the *midland counties*, where it is paid in a high proportion, and thoſe who have not already *paid for it*; but we muſt conſider it as having acquired the nature of a rent charge by its long eſtabliſhment. In the interval ſince its eſtabliſhment, a very large proportion of the kingdom has changed owners, by purchaſe at reduced rentals in proportion to the amount of the tax; and, at moſt, only thoſe could have any equitable claim to be relieved from it, who derive their property by *inheritance* from perſons who held it before the tax was impoſed. Mr. Bell's principal propoſition in this Eſſay is, that two millions five hundred thouſand pounds a year ſhould be applied by the government of this country to the improvement of agriculture, and to be placed under the management of the Board of Agriculture! and of other ſimilar provincial eſtabliſhments! Of this ſum, 500,000l. ſhould be annually diſtributed in *premiums*.

Here we muſt enter our proteſt againſt the abſurdity which this plan participates with moſt others of a ſimilar nature, namely, that of offering *bounties* for which there can be hardly any *competition*. Of what *general* effect, in encouraging their growth, can premiums be, which can only be claimed by thoſe who have cultivated *within the year* an extent of not leſs than *one hundred acres* of potatoes, and ſo, in other inſtances, in every diſtrict. The review of a work is not a convenient place for diſcuſſing at length the very doubtful queſtion of *premiums*. We are far from believing that they are totally uſeleſs, but experience has never been greatly in their favour; and we believe, that a better encouragement, in all inſtances, is, a ſteady *market-price*, which may afford an adequate profit.

"The next (p. 268) and not the leaſt important part of the plan, conſiſts in the application of the other part of the ſum which I have ſuppoſed the nation ſhould allow for the improvement of agriculture."

He propoſes, that, under certain regulations, two millions a year ſhould be annually *lent* for ten years, free of intereſt, at the rate of not more than ten pounds for every acre to be improved; which, he thinks, would bring into cultivation 200,000 acres annually of lands at preſent unproductive. County-boards of agriculture are to ſee that it is properly applied, and are to take ſufficient ſecurity for the repayment of the principal ſums. There is much good ſenſe in this propoſition, and in many of the obſervations by which it is recommended;

mended; but, unleſs Mr. Bell's *El Dorado* can furniſh twenty ſix millions a year, it is not eaſy to ſay how an adequate fund is to be provided. If the time ſhould arrive, when the capital, ſet afloat by the increaſing operation of the redeeming fund, ſhould cauſe an inconvenient and impolitic diminution of the value of money, and ſhould divert it too much to foreign ſpeculations (a ſituation of things, which, more than almoſt any other cauſe, has contributed to the ruin of Holland, and which may be more near in this country than is commonly ſuppoſed), it may then perhaps be found convenient to ſubſtitute other employments of ſurplus revenue; and among thoſe, this ſuggeſtion of Mr. Bell's would deſerve particular attention. Indeed, without a more minute analyſis of this Eſſay, we may ſay, that in general, and with but few exceptions, it deſerves conſiderable commendation; and has much which is worthy of the attention of thoſe who turn their thoughts to political œconomy.

We may, with equal juſtice, recommend the fourth Eſſay, on ſcarcity of proviſions and dearth; though we have good reaſon to believe, that there are in it ſome remarks which are inaccurate. The author examines, with conſiderable acuteneſs, the popular allegations as to the cauſes of ſcarcity and of dearneſs; and, in general, ſhows in a very ſatisfactory manner that their effects are, either in ſome inſtances even uſeful, or, in general, by no means ſo extenſive as is commonly imagined.

"Of all the cauſes of ſcarcity, commonly mentioned by the public, none can, in my opinion, give riſe to any diſtreſsful degree of it, if it be not the influence of bad ſeaſons." P. 434.

Mr. Bell is a warm advocate for an unlimited exportation and importation of corn, without regulation or reſtraint. We can readily go ſo far, as to agree that moſt of the recently exiſting regulations of the corn-trade were ill-adapted to the preſent proportions of Britiſh produce and conſumption; but, how the evil could be remedied, or the cultivation increaſed, by a free importation, without ſome ſort of protecting duty, ſome method of enabling the domeſtic grower of corn to meet the produce of foreign countries on equal terms in the market, we are at a loſs to underſtand. Meat cannot be ſo eaſily, or ſo cheaply, imported, as corn; and, when the diſproportion of their values is already ſo great, as to make growing in moſt inſtances more profitable than tillage, an *untaxed* importation of foreign grain produced where money is of much more value than in England, muſt at *all times* operate againſt our own tillage; with little leſs miſchief though leſs notoriety, when the prices are dear, than when they are cheap. We are irreſiſtibly

ſiſtibly led to this digreſſion, by the circumſtances of the preſent time; and hope that the public will ere long be allowed to profit by the obſervations of a gentleman, who has given very particular attention to this queſtion.

To the four Eſſays, which form the principal part of this work, an Apppendix is ſubjoined, containing the ſubſtance of memorials preſented at various times to the government:—1ſt, of one preſented in 1783, and again in 1800, on the propriety of an *enumeration of the people*, and a *Statiſtical Inquiry reſpecting the Claſſes of Society and the Produce of the Soil, &c. &c.* The 2d part of the Appendix contains the ſubſtance of memorials preſented in 1783, 1797, and 1800, on ſome of the means which, in times of dearth, would with moſt eaſe and certainty diminiſh the conſumption of corn, and ſupply the deficiency of a bad crop, as early as poſſible in the enſuing year. We think that important objections may be made to the greater part of this paper. No. 3, of the Appendix, contains twelve queries on points of agricultural œconomy, which had been formerly circulated by Mr. Bell, but to which he does not appear to have been very ſucceſsful in obtaining anſwers. However, he ſubjoins to them the ſubſtance of thoſe from twenty-five correſpondents in different counties.

On a general view of this work; we muſt ſay, that in every part of it there are marks of an active and ingenious mind, led in many inſtances to abſurdity, by looking *one way* only; but, that the fourth Eſſay "on Scarcity of Proviſions and Dearth," has a great deal which deſerves attention; not indeed unmingled with ſpeculations of doubtful value, but with a much ſmaller proportion of them than of the other parts of the volume.

ART. XIII. *An Experimental Inquiry into the Nature and Propagation of Heat. By John Leſlie.* 8vo. 562 pp. 14s. Mawman, London; Bell and Bradfute, Edinburgh. 1804.

THE ſubject of heat, ſo intereſting to the human ſpecies, has at all times engaged the attention of the philoſopher, of the medical man, and of the œconomiſt. Much conjecture had been advanced, few practical improvements had been made, and few real properties diſcovered, concerning the calorific fluid, during a long period of years. But in the

the preſent inquiſitive age, the ardour of inveſtigation, aided by the general improvement of all the collateral branches of knowledge, has produced a greater addition to that which was known relatively to the ſubject of heat, than formed the whole ſum of that knowledge about fifty or ſixty years ago.

Amongſt the recent promoters of that ſubject, a very diſtinguiſhed place muſt be aſſigned to the author of the work which is at preſent the object of our conſideration, and which we have peruſed with much pleaſure and ſatisfaction. This publication, which conſiſts of a pretty thick octavo volume, is divided into twenty-one chapters, to which a dedication to Thomas Wedgewood, Eſq. and a preface, are prefixed; and it is illuſtrated by nine elegant engravings. The notes and illuſtrations are placed at the end of the work. But the chapters have no titles; nor is the work furniſhed with a table of contents or an index. The plates are diſperſed through the book in a very irregular manner; not indeed by any miſtake of the bookbinder, but by the expreſs directions of the author; and this irregularity is rather perplexing to the reader when he is referred to the various figures.

In the introduction this author ſtates, that the leading facts, which gave riſe to the preſent work, were manifeſted in the year 1801, in conſequence of which he was induced to follow the track with ardour and aſſiduity. His experiments were attended with ſucceſs; but on the concluſion of the laſt peace, an excurſion to the continent interrupted for a while his courſe of experimental inveſtigation. On his return he haſtened to enlarge the apparatus, and to perform ſome of the experiments anew with different modifications; at the ſame time carrying forward a variety of ſubordinate inquiries, calculated to improve and extend the theory. He at length ventured to commit the work to the preſs; but his diſtance from the printing-houſe, and other obſtructions, not only delayed the accompliſhment and publication of the work until the charm of novelty was almoſt entirely worn off; but likewiſe prevented his beſtowing that degree of correction of which his work might have ſtood in need.

The principal object of his inveſtigation was to diſcover the nature, and to aſcertain the properties, of what is termed radiant heat. Moſt of his experiments relate to it. He has endeavoured to diſtinguiſh the elements which enter into that complex proceſs, the propagation of heat; and to eſtimate their ſeparate influence. The nature of his experiments, and the principal reſults of his inveſtigation, will in great meaſure

be manifeſted by the following brief examination of the contents of the chapters.

The firſt chapter deſcribes the principal inſtruments uſed in the performance of the experiments. Thoſe inſtruments were, 1ſt, ſeveral reflectors of tinned iron, ſome of which had a ſpherical, others a parabolical, and one an elliptical ſurface; 2dly, ſeveral caniſters, or hollow tubes of different ſizes, made of block tin, with a ſmooth and bright ſurface: theſe caniſters were generally filled with hot water, and a thermometer was fixed into each; and, 3dly, an inſtrument of eſſential uſe in thoſe experiments, which this author calls the *differential* thermometer. The conſtruction of this curious inſtrument is deſcribed in the following words:

"Two glaſs tubes of unequal lengths, each terminating in a hollow ball, and having their bores ſomewhat widened at the other ends, a ſmall portion of ſulphuric acid tinged with carmine being introduced into the ball of the longer tube, are joined together by the flame of a blow-pipe, and afterwards bent into nearly the ſhape of the letter U, the one flexure being made juſt below the joining, where the ſmall cavity facilitates the adjuſtment of the inſtrument, which, by a little dexterity, is performed by forcing with the heat of the hand a few minute globes of air from the one ball into the other. The balls are blown as equal as the eye can judge, and from four-tenths to ſeven-tenths of an inch in diameter." P. 9.

"A moment's attention to the conſtruction of this inſtrument will ſatisfy us that is affected only by the *difference* of heat in the corresponding balls, and is calculated to meaſure ſuch difference with peculiar nicety. As long as both balls are of the ſame temperature, whatever this may be, the air contained in the one will have the ſame elaſticity as that in the other, and conſequently the intercluded coloured liquor, being thus preſſed equally in oppoſite directions, muſt remain ſtationary. But if, for inſtance, the ball which holds a portion of the liquor be warmer than the other, the ſuperior elaſticity of the confined air will drive it forwards, and make it riſe in the oppoſite branch above the zero, to an elevation proportional to the exceſs of elaſticity or of heat." P. 10.

All the above-mentioned inſtruments were furniſhed with proper ſtands to reſt upon, and the general mode of performing the experiments with them is clearly ſhown by the following extract, which is the commencement of the ſecond chapter.

"In a cloſe room without a fire, place the tin reflector near the end of the table*, and ſet the caniſter on its ſtand a few feet diſtant, and

"* The figure repreſents a ſcreen in front of the caniſter, but which is introduced only in the experiments related in the next chapter."

with

with its papered or blackened ſide directly fronting the reflector; and having, by means of a lighted taper or otherwiſe, found the place of the correſponding focus, move to that ſpot the ball of the differential thermometer containing the coloured liquor, which, to avoid circumlocution, I ſhall in future term the *focal* ball, and bring the plane of the inſtrument parallel to the face of the reflector. Things being in this ſtate of preparation, fill the caniſter with boiling water, and adapt the cap with its thermometer. The coloured liquor of the differential thermometer will be perceived immediately to riſe; in the ſpace of two or three minutes it will have mounted near the top of the ſcale, and, having remained a ſhort while ſtationary, it will afterwards ſlowly deſcend in proportion as the caniſter cools. I uſed commonly the ſix-inch caniſter, placed at the diſtance of three feet from the deep reflector; and, under ſuch circumſtances, the effect produced on the focal ball amounted at its higheſt range to about 80 degrees*. But after many trials, I found this effect, in every poſſible caſe, to be exactly proportioned to the heat of the caniſter, or the difference of its temperature from that of the room: an obſervation which, by introducing ſuch ſimplicity, very much facilitated the proſecution of the experiments. The thermometer generally indicated 95 degrees centigrade, when I began to note the effect on the focal ball; and I continued at proper intervals to regiſter the quantities, till the caniſter had cooled down to 50 or 60 degrees, ſo that a couple of hours perhaps elapſed before I had occaſion to empty and refill it. From that regiſter I calculated, by the rule of proportion, the quantities which would correſpond to 100 degrees of difference of temperature, or the whole interval between the freezing and the boiling points, which laſt numbers only I took the trouble to preſerve. And it would ſurely be preposterous to embarraſs the attention of the reader with a multiplicity of figures and mere arithmetical computations: the facts which I have to ſtate are not founded on the authority of ſingle experiments, but are the mean reſults of numerous obſervations performed with the utmoſt care. Their coincidence was in general ſufficiently ſtriking, and if, in certain nice caſes, any diſcrepancy occurred, I did never reſt ſatisfied till, by frequent repetition, every doubt and uncertainty had diſappeared.

"But the experiments ſucceed equally with cold as with heat. If the caniſter be filled with ice, or with a frigorific mixture of ſnow and ſalt, the focal ball will be chilled, and the coloured liquor will conſequently ſink. The meaſure of the effect too, though in a contrary direction, is ſtill rigorouſly proportional to the difference of temperature. Thus, if the liquor in the differential thermometer aſcend forty-five diviſions, while the temperature of the caniſter is 76 degrees, and that of the room 16 degrees; on filling the caniſter with broken pieces of ice, which will therefore continue at zero, the liquor will deſcend twelve diviſions; but twelve is in the ſame proportion to ſixteen that

"* Equal to 14½ degrees by Farenheit's ſcale."

forty-five is to ſixty, or the difference between ſeventy-ſix and ſixteen.

"Thoſe effects might be exhibited at greater diſtances, by employing two reflectors facing each other, and having their foci conjugate, the hot or cold body being placed in the one focus, and the ſentient ball of the differential thermometer in the other. But this plan of experimenting, though not without beauty, is altogether unfit for any delicate inquiry: ſince, to obtain the peculiar advantage of that adaptation, the body ſuſpended in the primary focus muſt be very ſmall, and therefore its action will be only feeble and tranſient, incompatible with correct obſervation.

"From what has been ſtated, it appears unqueſtionable that ſome hot or cold matter, according to the nature of the caſe, actually flows from the caniſter towards the reflector, and from the reflector to the focal ball, where its impreſſion accumulates till the complete effect is produced. Heat and cold, in every reſpect only relative, thus ſhow the ſame meaſure of action, which muſt therefore be referred to the ſame identical cauſe. We have now to inveſtigate what circumſtances are capable of altering the energy of that emiſſion. For the ſake of diſtinctneſs, I ſhall, in this and ſome of the ſubſequent chapters, adopt one hundred to denote the extreme effect, or that of the blackened ſurface with the whole difference of temperature between boiling and freezing; and ſhall expreſs the other quantities after the ſame proportion." P. 13.

Having made this ample extract, which will convey an idea of the practical part of the inveſtigation, we ſhall now be enabled to point out the moſt remarkable reſults of the experiments in a conciſe manner, and ſhall perhaps be no longer under the neceſſity of deſcribing any other apparatus.

The experiments of the ſecond and third chapters relate to the aptitudes of bodies for receiving or for reflecting heat, and an hypotheſis is ſubjoined for the general explanation of the facts. In the courſe of thoſe chapters, Mr. L. offers ſeveral hints, and adds ſome queries concerning the poſſible nature, and propagation of heat and cold. But thoſe particulars are not ſuſceptible of abridgment ſufficiently to be inſerted in this account.

The experiments of the fourth chapter ſhow in the firſt place the various intenſities of heat at certain different diſtances from the hot body; and in the ſecond prove that a remarkable ſort of aberration takes place in the reflection of heat.

In the fifth chapter this author deſcribes experiments, proving, that the radiant heat iſſues from every point of the hot body, and proceeds in all directions, "and conſequently their aggregate effect muſt depend entirely upon the number of thoſe points, without being in any reſpect modified by the relative poſition, or the inclination of the radiant ſurface."

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The account of experiments made on the various affections of the ſurface propellent of heat and cold, together with a variety of collateral obſervations, form the contents of the ſixth chapter. Thoſe affections or qualities of the propellent ſurface were conſidered under five principal points of view; viz.: 1, the nature of the ſubſtance of which it conſiſts; 2, its condition with reſpect to poliſh or luſtre; 3, its thickneſs; 4, its diſpoſition to hardneſs or ſoftneſs; and, 5, its colour.

The ſeventh chapter deſcribes another method of aſcertaining the aptitudes of metallic ſurfaces to diſcharge heat; namely, by examining their various powers of reflecting heat; for, ſince the power of reflecting has been found ſupplementary to the power of emitting or abſorbing heat, the one increaſing in proportion as the other decreaſes, it is evident that the latter is indicated by the former. Mr. L. found the comparative powers of metallic ſurfaces for reflecting heat, to be as follows:

" Reflecting Subſtance.	Effect.
Braſs - - -	100
Silver - - -	90
Tinfoil - - -	85
Planiſhed* block tin - -	80
Steel - - -	70
Lead - - -	60
Tinfoil ſoftened by the affuſion of quickſilver, and with a brilliant ſurface -	50

" A plate of glaſs, ſubſtituted in the place of thoſe metallic ones, produced an effect of about 10. With a coat of wax or oil, the action did not exceed 5." P. 98.

After the ſeventh chapter this author interrupts for a while the narration of his experimental reſearches, and endeavours to form a theory of heat by connecting the reſults of his experiments with the other well-known properties of that ſubtile natural agent.

The eighth chapter is a ſort of introduction to this theoretical inveſtigation, and it contains a general, but ſuccinct, view of the conſtitution of the world. It commences by ſtating, and at the ſame time illuſtrating, the two well-known diviſions, under which the material world may be conſidered; viz. that of *form*, which is mutable, and that of *ſubſtance*, which is permanent. The principle of gravitation with its laws and probable mode of exiſtence, is conſidered next, and to this are added ſeveral important reflections on the nature of colliſion, or of impulſes, and their mode of propagation from body to body, either elaſtic or non-elaſtic.

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* Qu? Poliſhed. *Rev.*

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In the beginning of the ninth chapter, Mr. L. examines the more eſſential properties of light and heat, ſhowing, by a natural deduction from facts, that light and heat agree in their three principal properties; namely, an extreme ſubtility, a powerful elaſticity, and an attraction towards all other ſubſtances.

"A coincidence, ſo ſtriking in every point, might alone incline us to conſider light and heat as identical. But ſuch evidence, however ſeducing, is only preſumptive; and fortunately the propoſition can be ſupported by direct and unexceptionable proofs. I need mention only a ſingle fact, which, duly weighed, will appear entirely concluſive. *If a body be expoſed to the ſun's rays, it will in every poſſible caſe be found to indicate a meaſure of heat exactly proportioned to the quantity of light which it has abſorbed.*" P. 160.

And after a ſhort illuſtration of the above propoſition, he ſubjoins the following concluſion.

"It were eaſy to multiply arguments and illuſtrations. But enough has, I preſume, been ſtated to eſtabliſh the concluſion, *that heat is only light in the ſtate of combination.*"

The remainder of the chapter contains a few anſwers to objections which might be made to this theory, together with further illuſtrations of the ſame; viz. that heat is only light in a ſtate of combination.

Notwithſtanding Mr. Leſlie's avowed confidence in the above theory, we muſt acknowledge ourſelves not quite convinced of its truth, or even of its probability. That light and heat are the ſame principle under different modifications; alſo that light, heat, and electricity are eſſentially the ſame thing in different ſtates of exiſtence; are hypotheſes frequently advanced by philoſophical writers; but were never proved by any direct and deciſive experiments.

One of the greateſt objections to Mr. Leſlie's theory is Dr. Herſchell's diſcovery of the ſun's rays conſiſting of heat and light as two diſtinct principles; which is proved by their being differently refracted by the priſm. In note, No. LXV. page 559, Mr. L. imprudently treats this diſcovery of Dr. H. with great contempt, yet he does not endeavour to diſprove it by any direct experiment. He only ſuggeſts one ſuppoſition or poſſible ſource of error.

In the tenth chapter this author conſiders various properties of heat, and, in great meaſure, of light alſo; ſuch as the abſolute zero, or the beginning of the ſcale of heat; its repulſive force, its velocity, together with the direction of its courſe

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when emitted, the quantity of light emitted by the ſun, &c. Several of the remarks contained in this chapter are peculiarly new and judicious. The following is a ſpecimen.

"But though it is a received opinion, that light radiates from luminous bodies with equal diſperſion, this propoſition will appear on examination very far from being accurate. If a ſhining flat ſurface placed at a conſiderable diſtance, be turned more and more obliquely to the eye, its brightneſs will continue nearly the ſame: were the rays however equally copious in every direction, it is evident that the degree of illumination ought to grow more and more intenſe, in the ſucceſſive poſitions of the ſurface; ſince the eye receives ſtill the ſame quantity of light, while the optical magnitude, by reaſon of the increaſing obliquity, is always contracting. The brightneſs of a luminous ſurface would be in the inverſe ratio of the coſine of its inclination, or as the ſecant of that angle. Hence, a red-hot ball ſhould appear the darkeſt about the centre, and extremely bright near the edges. But this is quite contrary to fact, for at a remote diſtance the ball is not diſtinguiſhable from a flat luminous diſc. It hence follows, that light is emitted leſs copiouſly in the oblique directions, and that the denſity of the rays is nearly as the coſine of their deviation from the perpendicular." P. 185.

The eleventh chapter contains further obſervations concerning the above-mentioned theory; namely, that the ſame ſubtile matter, according to its different modes of exiſtence, conſtitutes either heat or light; to which are ſubjoined ſeveral reflections concerning the motion of heat through the interior of bodies.

In the twelfth chapter, Mr. L. particularly examines the nature of the diffuſion of heat; and his concluſion is, that the diffuſion of heat through the atmoſphere is effected by the means of certain oſcillations or vibratory impreſſions, excited in that elaſtic and active medium. Theſe vibratory impreſſions he endeavours to illuſtrate in a variety of ways, by comparing them with the vibrations of the air, of water, of muſical chords, &c. And, in the following chapter, he uſes that principle in explanation of the various phænomena mentioned in the preceding part of the work.

The fourteenth chapter is replete with uſeful matter. The principal object of examination is the refrigeration of hot bodies, produced by a current of air, or by the frequent renewal of the contiguous air; and this mode of refrigeration is ſubjected not only to computation in a very ingenious manner, but is likewiſe, in great meaſure, confirmed by experiments. Amongſt the reſults of thoſe experiments, we cannot forbear mentioning one, which was undoubtedly diſcovered before

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the publication of ſimilar experiments by other labourers in the ſame field of philoſophical inveſtigation.

"The application", Mr. L. ſays, "of a coat of pigment to a metallic ſurface, inſtead of retarding the effect, almoſt doubles its diſcharge of heat. This fact, equally curious and important, is moſt contrary to the prevalent notions, and ſeems not to have been hitherto obſerved." P. 269.

And, a little further on, he adds,

"Nay, a tin caniſter, filled with hot water, will cool conſiderably faſter after it is covered with flannel, and would require the farther addition of one or two folds to make it cool at the ſame rate as before; the profuſe energy of its unmetallic ſurface being then compenſated by the retardation ariſing from the thickneſs of the ſpongy maſs." P. 270.

Having inveſtigated the cooling powers, which currents of air of different velocities are likely to have, Mr. L. towards the end of the laſt-mentioned chapter, propoſes a new and ſimple ſort of *anemometer*; viz. a ſimple thermometer heated by the application of the human hand, and then expoſed to the current of air; for by obſerving the time of its refrigeration through a given number of degrees, the velocity of the current of air may be eſtimated by means of a rule which is given in page 285. We are inclined however to ſuſpect, that, as various circumſtances concur towards the production of the effect, this anemometer is not likely to prove very accurate.

The ſixteenth, ſeventeenth, and eighteenth chapters contain further inveſtigations of the mode by which a cold ſtream of air or water, cools the bodies upon which it falls; together with ſeveral other experiments, remarks, and calculations concerning refrigeration. The greateſt number of thoſe experiments were made by incloſing a caniſter, or tin veſſel, in another caniſter of a ſize a little larger, and this in another ſtill larger, &c. a ſmall ſpace intervening between them. The innermoſt of thoſe veſſels was filled with hot water, and a thermometer was fixed in it. The experiments were divided into three ſets; viz. 1. when the ſurface of the internal caniſter and its ſeveral caſes were metallic; 2. when thoſe ſurfaces were all painted, or conſiſted of glaſs; and 3. when they were compoſed partially of both ſorts: and the rate of cooling was examined in all thoſe caſes.

The nineteenth chapter deſcribes, in a very particular manner, the photometer, or meaſurer of the intenſities of light, invented by Mr. Leſlie. This inſtrument is nothing more than

than a differential thermometer, ſuch as has been deſcribed before, having one ball only painted black; for when this inſtrument is expoſed to the light, the black ball, by abſorbing more light is thereby heated more than the oppoſite ball, and of courſe depreſſes the fluid in the graduated ſtem. This effect is proportionate to the intenſity of the light to which the inſtrument is expoſed.

The various application or uſes of this photometer are mentioned in the twentieth chapter, where it is ſhown, that with it may be meaſured the intenſities of light in every poſſible caſe; i. e. the enquirer may be enabled to determine the quantities of light of different ſeaſons, of different luminaries, of the different times of the day; alſo the tranſparency of diaphanous bodies, the reflecting powers of different ſubſtances, &c. Towards the end of the ſame chapter, Mr. L. ſhows how the ſenſibility of his photometer may be increaſed to ſuch a degree as perhaps to be affected even by the feeble light of the moon.

The important experiments relative to the conducting power of air, meaning its power of conducting heat, in different ſtates of rarefaction; and likewiſe the conducting powers of other gaſes, are deſcribed in the twenty-firſt chapter, which is the laſt of the work. Thoſe experiments were performed by fixing the photometer within the glaſs receiver of the air pump, and applying a hot body to it under different ſtates of rarefaction.

The conducting power of air was found to diminiſh with its rarefaction; but, when the ſucceſſive denſities of the air were in geometrical progreſſion, the decreaſing conducting powers did not form a progreſſion quite regular. Mr. L. endeavours, with much ingenuity, to trace the nature of this decreaſe of conducting power; but, with reſpect to thoſe particulars, we muſt refer our readers to the work itſelf.

"Whatever", Mr. L. ſays, "has the property of dilating the air, has likewiſe a tendency to depreſs its power of abſtracting heat. The various elaſtic vapours, in mixing with the atmoſpheric fluid communicate their peculiar expanſive force, and ſeem by that union to occaſion a proportional diminution of its conducting quality. The influence of humidity is viſible, but the more volatile ſubſtances have a marked effect." P. 281.

And, in p. 483, he ſays,

"The permanent gaſes differ as much from common air, perhaps, by their diſpoſition to conduct heat, as by their denſity or other properties.

perties. The azotic and the oxygenous, indeed, ſeem to poſſeſs it nearly in the ſame degree. But carbonic gas abſtracts the heat from a vitreous ſurface about an eighth part ſlower, and from a ſurface of metal one-fourth ſlower, than common air. By progreſſive rarefaction, that property is alſo reduced on a ſimilar ſcale. Hydrogenous gas, however, is the moſt diſtinguiſhed by its affection for heat, which it conducts with unuſual energy."

Thus we have endeavoured to give our readers ſome idea of the contents of a work, which highly deſerves the attention of the philoſophical world. Rich in new and uſeful facts, as well as in proper remarks, and judicious obſervations; it furniſhes abundant matter for philoſophical inveſtigation, and opens new paths into the labyrinth of natural energies and operations. We are by no means ſatisfied with all its hypothetical part; and it might be wiſhed that the whole were digeſted into a more methodical order, with a ſimplification of the calculations, and other uſeful improvements. But we truſt that, in a future edition, Mr. L. will endeavour to render this work as perfect as the nature of the ſubject may admit.

BRITISH CATALOGUE.

POETRY.

ART. 14. *The Pleaſures of Compoſition, a Poem, in two Parts. Part I.* 8vo. 60 pp. 2s. 6d. Hatchard. 1804.

This unfiniſhed Poem is attributed to a gentleman, whoſe writings have more than once received the public approbation, Mr. Eyles Irwin. A cultivated taſte, and an ardent zeal, for the polite arts, appear in the preſent compoſition; which, as a poem, is chiefly defective from a degree of obſcurity, ſuch as a further attention to the ſtyle and expreſſion might perhaps remove.

The following lines, for inſtance, though good in cadence, are extremely enigmatical:

> "By moderns held a monumental art,
> Still Sculpture's orb ſhall ſetting luſtres dart:
> The patriot's ſtatue in the forum plac'd,
> Whoſe baſe his dying conqueror once embrac'd,
> Now waits till death his ſtation ſhall aſſign,
> A nation's tribute to her CHATHAM's ſhrine:

Heaven

Hence thro' the abbey's venerable ailes,
The chiſſel's pow'r at diſſolution ſmiles:
The warrior triumphs in his trophy'd hearſe,
And poets find new advocates for verſe". P. 11.

In the beginning of this paſſage, the poet means, that the ancient patriot had a ſtatue ſo early, that Cæſar fell before the figure of his rival Pompey, but that moderns wait for poſthumous honour of this kind, as in the caſe of Lord Chatham. This is the general idea; but it is by no means ſufficiently developed; and what is intended by the concluding line, we have not been able even to conjecture. This is only one paſſage out of ſeveral, to which a ſimilar objection might be made. See particularly l. 236, in which a whole hiſtory is alluded to, without the leaſt direction to the reader, except the note.

Compoſition is invoked in the beginning as a perſon; we then find that ſhe includes Sculpture, both of ſtatues and medals, Architecture, Painting, Muſic, and Poetry. Yet all of theſe are alſo ſeparately perſonified; and Sculpture, we ſee in the paſſage juſt cited, is once an orb with ſetting rays. The ſubject of the Poem is, in fact, rather the hiſtory and merits of compoſition than the pleaſures of it: unleſs the author means (which we rather ſuſpect) the pleaſure which the compoſitions of one man give to others, and this his title by no means expreſſes. He is ſometimes incorrect in his accents; as *ſolácer*, ver. 333, and *óbdurate*, ver. 456. The Poem contains only 458 lines; the reſt of the book conſiſts of notes.

Should the author proceed in his plan, it will be neceſſary for him to reviſe this firſt part with much care; taking the advice of competent judges on the ſubject. The plan wants improving, in ſeveral inſtances, as well as the expreſſion. We ſincerely wiſh, for the ſake of the author, to ſee it laboured into a more perfect form.

ART. 15. *The Sorrows of Seduction; with other Poems.* 12mo. 3s. 6d. Longman and Co. 1805.

This little volume, which, as the author ſays, paſſed from himſelf immediately to his publiſhers, without any examination on the part of a friend, exhibits great elegance of taſte, and warmth of feeling. The firſt Poem, on Seduction, though unfortunately the ſubject is trite, is well managed, and has many pathetic and beautiful paſſages. We have only room for a ſpecimen of the author's lighter effuſions.

"EARLY SPRING.

With timid air, and cautious foot, Young Spring,
From ſpicy climes returns to deck the plain,
With Flora fair and Zephyr on the wing,
And all the Graces moving in her train.

In bending attitude with liſt'ning ear,
She darts her glance along the moſs-brown vale,
Fearful leſt Winter hoar, with aſpect drear,
Should rude aſſail her with his withering gale.

Oft as ſhe hears him murmur in the dell,
Or o'er the field with fleety blaſt reſound,
Startled ſhe bids the gemleſs grove farewell,
Till Echo ceaſe to raiſe his ire around.

Young Genius, thus by fearful breaſt betrayed,
Oft flies from Fame, and woes the lonely ſhade."

ART. 16. *The Minſtrel; or, the Progreſs of Genius. With ſome other Poems. By James Beattie, LL. D. A new Edition. To which are prefixed, Memoirs of the Life of the Author. By Alex. Chalmers, Eſq.* 12mo. 168 pp. 4s. Mawman. 1805.

This little volume, in its poetical part, offers only the uſual collection of Dr. Beattie's compoſitions; and very excellent reaſons are offered (in p. xiii.) againſt bringing forward to public notice, thoſe poems which the author's own judgment had determined him to ſuppreſs. The Life of Dr. Beattie, the only novelty in the book, as being the production of the biographer of the Britiſh Eſſayiſts*, will deſervedly attract attention. The ſoundneſs of Mr. Chalmers's opinions, which we have always admired, appears conſpicuouſly in the following paſſage, which is alſo very happily expreſſed. It is occaſioned by the defence which Dr. Beattie thought it neceſſary to make for his own warmth, in ſome part of the *Eſſay on Truth*.

"The mode of treating the writings of infidels, like every other ſpecies of controverſy, muſt partake of the varieties of human temper, and temper is frequently obſerved to take a freer range in the cloſet than in ſociety. I am willing to allow, therefore, that the author of the "Eſſay on Truth" is warm when compared to ſome who have written againſt Hume and the ſceptical philoſophers. Dr. Campbell has been praiſed for his urbanity to Hume, and for carrying on a reſpectful correſpondence with a man whoſe pernicious opinions he thought it his duty to expoſe and confute. Dr. Campbell was beyond all doubt ſincere, but he was not indignant. The queſtion, therefore, may to ſome appear of difficult ſolution, in what manner the profeſſed enemy of Chriſtianity is to be treated? This has been frequently propoſed, but it has not been ſatisfactorily anſwered. All will acknowledge that there are certain rules of good manners, the breach of which no controverſy can juſtify; but the mere admiſſion of this will probably be thought inſufficient. There are men likewiſe who think that we ought to argue for the evidences of religion and the foundations of human happineſs, with as much coolneſs as if the conteſt related to the niceties of grammar, or the dates of hiſtory; but neither will this be admitted as a conſiſtent principle. In all diſputes, the warmth, the zeal, the exertions, muſt riſe in proportion to the value of the object contended for; and if the exuberance of the affections be ever pardonable, it muſt ſurely be in the caſe of a man who endeavours to reſcue from ſophiſtry and perverſion doctrines of eternal importance; and who ſees, or thinks he ſees, the religion, morals, and

* See Brit. Crit. vol. xxiii. p. 548.

happineſs

happineſs of mankind, at ſtake. Such was certainly the caſe of our author, and ſuch was his opinion. He ſays in the abovementioned poſtſcript, "when doctrines are publiſhed ſubverſive of morality and religion, doctrines of which I perceive and have it in my power to expoſe the abſurdity, my duty to the public forbids me to be ſilent; eſpecially when I ſee that, by the influence of faſhion, folly, or more criminal cauſes, theſe doctrines ſpread wider and wider every day, diffuſing ignorance, miſery, and licentiouſneſs, wherever they prevail." —In this view of his duty, a writer who betrays no warmth, no animated ſympathy with his ſubject, who is courtly in expreſſing indignation, and ſhy in expoſing danger, muſt have either been dragged into the conteſt againſt his will, or muſt be indifferent to the iſſue. The truth is, Mr. Beattie had many opportunities of obſerving the miſchief occaſioned by Mr. Hume's writings among his countrymen". P. 19.

Every good man will rejoice, when the pen of ſo very able an advocate for truth is employed to add dignity and value to a new publication.

ART. 17. *The Bettyad, a Poem, deſcriptive of the Progreſs of the Young Roſcius in London, by S. M. Woodward, Author of Eccentric Excurſions through England and Wales, &c.* 8vo. 17 pp. Allen, 1805.

A very good-natured attempt to celebrate the ſucceſs of this juvenile performer, in ſuch verſes as the following:

"What ſounds confus'd ſalute my ears?
From prieſts, from poets, actors, peers!
What mania fills the ſoul?
Smiles, greetings, ſalutations, all
One buz of joy, 'mongſt great and ſmall,
The world's ſure upſide down!

Oh! bleſh maheart,—old Levi cries,
Dear me!—the Chriſtian Miſs replies;
Ben Block, too, aids the clatter:
Huzzas augment the ſwelling tide,
Pleaſure prevails on ev'ry ſide,
John Bull cries, what's the matter?"

The laſt ſtanza is ſo well meant, that we cannot refrain from inſerting it.

"Thus ends the Muſe her frolic play,
But ſhould a bard in *ſerious* lay
Attack his juſt renown;
Or on pale Envy's tablets write
A line, his well-earn'd praiſe to blight,
Her hand ſhall beat it down."

ART.

ART. 18. *Poems. A Picture of London in Miniature, and Richmond Hill. By Kennedy Clark, of Banff.* 12mo. 1s. 6d. Stuart. 1804.

The author ſo modeſtly begs the Public to accept of theſe Poems as the effuſions of an humble and honeſt heart, that criticiſm is out of the queſtion. Beſides, the author has for his patrons ALL ETON COLLEGE. Far be it from us to counteract the foſtering protection of this ſeminary of genius and learning.

"Few authors now but have ſome patron
To grace their page; perhaps ſome veteran,
Or ſome young miſs, or aged matron
In town or village:
But who have I got? a noble ſquadron,
ALL ETON COLLEGE."

The author moreover deſerves the praiſe of being a loyal ſubject; and thus concludes his volume:

"Mars ſound Fame's triumph, while Arts and Commerce ſing,
Britons be ever free, God ſave our noble King."

DRAMATIC.

ART. 19. *The Blind Bargain: or, Hear It Out; a Comedy, in five Acts, as performed at the Theatre Royal, Covent Garden. By Frederick Reynolds.* 8vo. 75 pp. 2s. 6d. Longman, 1805.

Were we to attempt to analyſe the plot of this or any dramatic piece of the ſame ſchool, we ſhould only bewilder ourſelves, and probably our readers alſo. Suffice it to ſay that, in the preſent inſtance, there is much buſtle with occaſionally ſome intereſt, but little conſiſtency, and leſs probability. The attempts at wit and humour are very thinly ſcattered, and generally of the loweſt deſcription: for inſtance, an apothecary who had ſpent a great deal of money in building, ſays, that "what he gained by the *peſtle* he had loſt by the *mortar*." Yet this indifferent pun is the moſt prominent jeſt in the whole piece. After all, we have met with worſe dramas, at leaſt by *this* author; and though it was not without difficulty that we could "*read it out*," we are not, conſidering the preſent taſte, much ſurpriſed that it was "*heard out*" by the audience.

NOVEL.

ART. 20. *Men and Women, a Novel; in Three Volumes. Dedicated to Sir James Mackintoſh. By the Author of What you Pleaſe, Tourville.* 12mo. 12s. Lanſdown. 1805.

This author's former productions have not reached us, but we evidently diſcern in this Novel a more expert and accompliſhed pen than is uſually exerciſed in this branch of writing. The characters and incidents ſeem too multiplied and too crowded; but there

there is ſome very good writing, and proofs alſo of a well-informed mind, which have carried us through theſe volumes with much amuſement and ſatisfaction.

MEDICINE.

ART. 21. *A Treatiſe on Febrile Diſeaſes, &c. By A. Philips Wilſon, M.D. F.R.S. Ed. &c. Vols. III. and IV.* 8vo. Wincheſter printed; ſold by Cadell and Davies, London. 1801, 1804.

Of the two firſt volumes of this work an account was given in the fifteenth and ſeventeenth volumes of the Britiſh Critic. We now proceed to the third and fourth volumes, in the former of which (viz. the third) the author treats of ſymptomatic fevers, and of inflammation in general; then of ſpecific inflammations, ſuch as phlegmon, eryſipelas, phrenitis, ophthalmia, cynanche tonſillaris, and cynanche maligna. The Appendix contains obſervations on the urinary diſpoſitions in febrile diſorders, and on febrile anorexia.

In the fourth and concluding volume are compriſed cynanche trachealis, and the following viſceral inflammations; viz. pneumonia, peripneumonia notha, carditis, gaſtritis, enteritis, hepatitis (both acute and chronic) nephritis, cyſtitis and hyſteritis. After delivering the hiſtory and treatment of theſe diſorders, the author next proceeds to the deſcription and treatment of acute rheumatiſm and gout; and laſtly to the conſideration of hæmorrhagia, phthiſis pulmonalis, and dyſentery. The Appendix gives an account of experiments made, with a view to determine the manner in which opium and tobacco act on the living animal body, with obſervations on the doctrine of the ſympathy of nerves, and a catalogue of books referred to in the courſe of the work. With the exception of the laſt-mentioned article, it appears to us that the matters contained in this Appendix are very much miſplaced in a work of a practical nature. They ſhould have been printed in a ſeparate form, as many perſons who may wiſh to purchaſe the Treatiſe on Febrile Diſeaſes, may not have a taſte for phyſiological inquiries, and would therefore have been glad if the bulk and price of this fourth volume had been leſſened by their omiſſion. Without this and the other Appendixes, this treatiſe would have been of a ſufficient ſize and extent; for if there be any fault which attaches to the general execution of the work, it is that of being written in a manner rather too diffuſe.

Although the author has followed, with ſome modifications, the arrangement of Dr. Cullen, yet under the head of profluvia he has not given an account of catarrh, as well as dyſentery; becauſe he conſiders catarrh, in its common form, to be ſo well known and ſo eaſily managed as not to require a diſcuſſion. In its epidemic form, it is, he remarks, a more ſerious diſeaſe; but as in that form it only proves dangerous when it runs into fever, pneumonia, peripneumonia and phthiſis, he conceives that what he has ſaid of theſe diſorders will readily apply to the worſt forms of catarrh. As to the milder form of the epidemic catarrh, ſo much (he ſays) has been written on it, during the laſt twelvemonth, in every part of Britain, that any obſervations on it at this time ſeem to be ſuperfluous.

After

After the remarks we have made on the former parts of this work, it will not be expected that we ſhould enter into a minute examination of the preſent volumes. It will ſuffice to have enumerated their contents. We ſhall only further remark, that on each particular ſubject the author appears to have conſulted the beſt authorities, and to have produced altogether a compilation which may prove of conſiderable utility to practitioners in phyſic.

DIVINITY.

ART. 22. *An Expoſition of the Lord's Prayer. In which are comprehended an Account of the Origin of the Prayer; an Explanation of its ſeveral Petitions; and a Demonſtration that, according to its natural Interpretation, it contains a complete Summary of Chriſtian Doctrine. By the Rev. Joſeph Mendham, M. A.* 12mo. 208 pp. 4s. Rivingtons. 1803.

A learned and critical Expoſition of the Lord's Prayer, tending to ſhow it in the light of a general ſummary of the Chriſtian Doctrine, is here preſented to the reader. With reſpect to the origin of the prayer, the author brings forward an opinion, which is in ſome degree diſputable. It is, that our Lord did not invent, but ſelected the petitions of his prayer from the forms then in uſe among the Jews. Without entering into any controverſy on the ſubject, we ſhall ſhow in what manner Mr. Mendham refers it to thoſe ſources.

"The paſſages thus collected are as follows:

"Our Father which art in heaven*. Thy name be ſanctified†. Thy kingdom reign‡. Do thy will in heaven§. Forgive us our ſins‖. Lead us not into the hand of temptation¶, and deliver us from Satan**. For thine is the kingdom, and thou ſhalt reign glorioufly, for ever and ever." P. xvii.

In the opinion of the preſent author, this method was "ſuitable to the general conduct of our Lord, and reflects much honour upon his character." It avoided the imputation of novelty, and rendered the prayer itſelf more generally intelligible. We are not quite convinced of theſe particulars, nor prepared implicitly to receive the opinion: we ſtate it, however, for the conſideration of the learned, who will do well to weigh both the probability and the conſequences of it.

"* Maimonides, in Tephillot.
† Capellus, ex Euchologiis Judæorum.
‡ Druſius, ex libro Muſar. § Bab. Berachoth.
‖ In almoſt all their prayers.
¶ In libro Muſar apud Druſiam.
** In precibus Judæorum."

ART.

ART. 23. *The Prophecy of Iſaiah, concerning the Humiliation, Sufferings, Death, Burial, and conſequent Exaltation of the Meſſiah, paraphraſed; or, an Expoſition of Part of the Fifty-ſecond and Fifty-third Chapter; deſigned as a ſerious Meditation on Good Friday By the Rev. Edward Brackenbury, A. B. Vicar of Skendleby.* 8vo. 30 pp. 1s. Rivingtons. 1805.

In a ſhort, but well-written Preface, the author aſſures us, that this paraphraſe was undertaken "ſolely with a view of drawing the attention of the public to the recollection of the awful circumſtance of a day which is juſtly marked in our calendar, beyond all others, for pious ſolemnity and devout meditation. He has long lamented with many friends of the eſtabliſhed church, * the indecent, not to ſay irreligious conduct, of the unthinking multitude on Good-Friday, whoſe uninterrupted purſuit of their ſecular buſineſs, and ſolicitude in exacting all their labours, have been as eager, as if no other event had taken place than a partial eclipſe of the ſun, in which they had no concern, and which, fortunately for them, did not ſuperſede the natural courſe of their daily labour. But ſurely every conſiderate Chriſtian, whether high or low, muſt be convinced that ſomething was tranſacted on that eventful day which affects his faith, influences his hope, and deeply concerns his beſt and higheſt intereſts. What thoſe intereſts are, it is not, therefore, beneath his notice to inquire; and the author ſincerely hopes, that a brief elucidation of this prophetic part of holy writ, may tend, through God's bleſſing, to convince the careleſs of their error, to enlighten the eyes of the ignorant, and make their hearts glow with a generous and grateful ſenſibility of the unſpeakable mercies wrought out for their ſalvation as on this day, and to which they may be entitled through the ſufferings and mediation of the crucified Redeemer of the world". P. iii.

The author has executed his deſign, in a manner which evinces great piety of mind, joined with a very reſpectable ſhare of erudition; and we recommend this tract to the attention of all perſons, who have not been accuſtomed devoutly to meditate on the ſubject of this important day.

ART. 24. *A Penitential Sermon, preached in the Spaniſh and Portugueſe Jews' Synagogue, in Bevis-Marks, on 3d Heſvan, 5564, A. M. anſwering to the 19th of October, 1803, in conformity to a Royal Edict, appointing that Day to be obſerved as a General Faſt, and for the Purpoſe of invoking by penitential Prayer, Succeſs to his Majeſty's Arms, &c. By J. Luria.* 8vo. 32 pp. 2s. Aſperne. 1803.

This is "an Engliſh Tranſlation of the Sermon preached in Spaniſh." It ſhows, that the Jews conſider themſelves as under "an indiſpenſable obligation to co-operate in the ſecurity and welfare of the land they live in"; (p. 16) and, "that they are conſcious of the ſuperior bleſſings

* "See the Biſhop of London's Sermon on the Religious Obſervance of Good Friday."

which

which Providence has apportioned to *this* land". P. 17. Though we cannot say that this sermon is either eloquent or argumentative, yet we may justly commend some particular passages in it; and especially "the energetic maxim of the learned rabbins in their incomparable tenets of Abot:—"Constantly pray for the peace and welfare of the kingdom and government; *for if there were no subordination, one should swallow each other alive.*" P. 16. The sad experience of France has added one to the many proofs of the truth of this maxim; and it is not owing to *soi-disant whigs*, that another proof has not been added in England.

ART. 25. *A serious and affectionate Address to the Seamen and Mariners, of the Port of Boston. By a Fellow Townsman.* 8vo, 16 pp. Kellaby, Boston. 1803.

This is properly a *Sermon*, on James v. 19, 20. The good and pious *intention* of the writer is indisputable; but more than this is required in an *author*; in one who proposes to instruct the public: namely, a knowledge of his subject somewhat accurate, reflection, judgment, argument, and sound oratory, wherever (as in this case) oratory is requisite. But in these particulars the author before us is wanting; being superficial, desultory, and declamatory, in no moderate degree. His general representations, also, are not quite correct. We trust, that our brave sailors are not so extremely and universally profane, as this writer supposes. It should be considered, that one drunkard, or one man "belching out (as it is here *elegantly* expressed) oaths and curses", engages more notice, than twenty of a different character; yet he passes, with inattentive observers, as a sample of all the rest.* In another point, the author shows himself unacquainted with some excellent provisions lately established by law. The seamen of our merchant-ships have caught the infection [from the navy]. "*Thus*, the honest earnings of a voyage of hardship and danger, instead of going to the support of a wife and children, or aged parents, are too often spent in riot and debauchery". P. 13. The navy sets them a very *different* example. For the statutes, 35 Geo. III. c. 28; and 37 Geo. III. c. 53. having admirably well enabled seamen, &c. to allot part of their pay for the maintenance of their wives, children, or mothers; we have the best authority for affirming, that these statutes have produced, and continue to produce, very general and extensively beneficial effects.

POLITICS.

ART. 26. *Thoughts on the Object of a Foreign Subsidy. By John Wheatley, Esq.* 8vo. 46 pp. 1s. 6d. Cadell and Davies. 1804.

"Men of the pen," says Dr. Johnson, "have seldom any great skill in conquering kingdoms, but they have a strong inclination to give advice."

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* Perhaps, this observation is applicable to human life in general.

That

That a co-operation of the chief continental powers, in the preſent war, is highly deſirable, in order to obtain a ſecure and permanent peace, cannot, we think, be denied by any rational politician; but, on what principles ſuch a confederacy ſhould be formed, and to what immediate objects it ſhould be directed, is leſs eaſy to aſcertain. Undoubtedly if, without a judicious agreement reſpecting theſe objects, an alliance ſhould be formed, and continental war commenced in conſequence, there is great danger, leſt an union formed of ill-cemented materials ſhould, as on the former occaſion, gradually diſſolve. To guard againſt this danger, the author propoſes "a full and explicit declaration of the object which the parties to the confederacy are deſirous of attaining;" and, in order to ſhow the baſis on which a future balance of power ſhould be founded, he ſeparately enumerates the ſtates which conſtitute the dependent and independent proportions of Europe, ſetting forth the population, revenue, and army of each; by which it appears, that "France poſſeſſes a controul over nearly one half of the population and revenue of Europe. No doubt, therefore, can be entertained of the neceſſity of an univerſal confederacy to defeat, while defeat is practicable, the half-completed project of her ambition." Before they become a party to ſuch a coalition, this author thinks the public ſhould be informed of the diſtribution which is to be made of the territories of which France may be diſpoſſeſſed; and objecting (we think on good grounds) to the re-eſtabliſhment of the former ſyſtem, he propoſes to "divide that proportion of Europe, now occupied by the arms of France, into three independent kingdoms, by conſolidating Belgium and Holland into one independent ſovereignty, the inferior ſtates of Germany into another, and the whole country of Italy into a third; as each kingdom," he thinks, "would then poſſeſs a ſufficient degree of internal ſtrength to repel the aggreſſion of any other power."

Our limits will not admit of our entering into the details by which this ſenſible author explains and juſtifies this propoſal; but we can hardly admit of the neceſſity or policy of a public declaration, ſo minute as he ſeems to require, and which would pledge the ſeveral governments to all the particulars of a plan ſo difficult in the execution. That ſome new diviſion of territories would, in the event of a ſucceſsful continental war, become neceſſary, may be readily granted; but circumſtances muſt, we think, determine upon the mode and details of ſuch a meaſure. All that can, in our opinion, be peviouſly and *publicly* declared is, the fixed determination to reduce the exorbitant power of France, and reſtore the balance of Europe.

ART. 27. *Les Recettes Exterieures. Par Sir Francis D'Ivernois.* 8vo. 269 pp. De Boſſe. 1805.

Of the various, able, and public ſpirited works produced by this author, there is not one more replete with important information, or more worthy of general attention, than the tract now before us. In conſidering the cauſes of the preſent war, we are apt to aſcribe it ſolely to the love of dominion which actuates the preſent ruler of France. Sir F. D'Ivernois, with great probability, alledges that the ſyſtem of his government, and the neceſſity which he is under of ſupport-

ſupporting his uſurpation by an immenſe armed force, render a ſtate of warfare unavoidable; for, as long as he deems it expedient to maintain his army on its preſent eſtabliſhment, ſo long muſt a part of his reſources be derived from the plunder of his neighbours, and a part of his forces be ſubſiſted at their expence. This he conſiders as a principal cauſe of the rupture of the treaty of Amiens. The point therefore which Sir Francis has to prove is, the inadequacy of the uſurper's internal reſources to the maintenance of his civil and military eſtabliſhments, and the deficiency that would thence ariſe, were it not for the *external receipts* which are annually brought into the account, and which, though not diſtinctly ſpecified, undoubtedly conſiſt of contributions directly or indirectly levied upon foreign countries.

To accompany the author through the whole chain of reaſonings, and detail of facts, by which his main poſition is made out, would far exceed our limits. Suffice it to ſay, that he evinces here, as in his other writings, an intimate acquaintance with the finances and reſources of the French nation, and that, if we do not greatly err, his proofs will be found to be irrefragable, and his arguments concluſive. Some few, however, of the leading topics in this intereſting publication, we will briefly notice.

In order to give a general idea of the receipts and expences of the French Government, he ſtates in the Introduction, 1ſt. That, in 1804, the groſs produce of all the internal taxes and receipts, of every kind, amounted to 726 millions of francs, of which the receivers retained 175 millions, not only for the charges of receipt, but for various other expences which they had to pay. The remaining 551 millions conſtituted what is called the national revenue. This he ſhows is conſidered, by the French financiers themſelves, as a decreaſing revenue, and not likely, even with the additional taxes propoſed, to amount permanently to more than 500 millions.

2dly. He ſhows, that the peace-eſtabliſhment fixed by Bonaparte will require an annual expenditure of 644 millions, without taking the revenue promiſed to the clergy into the account. Thence he infers, 3dly, That the difference between the national receipts and expenditure, in time of peace, will be 144 millions, if the French entirely lay aſide their clergy, and more than 200 millions if ever the 82 millions ſolemnly promiſed to that clergy, when their lands were ſeized, ſhall be paid to them.

Two other matters of facts he conſiders as equally important to be eſtabliſhed, and, we think, irrefragably proves them.

In the firſt place, that, "according to the manner in which Bonaparte had formed his peace-eſtabliſhment, his preſent ſtate of war brings with it, at the utmoſt, an increaſe of only 75 millions in his expenditure.

In the next place, that "the campaign of 1804, having already procured him the double profit of an *external receipt*, which has amounted to 150 millions, and a ſaving of 75 millions, by the maintenance of a fourth of his troops at the coſt of foreign countries, theſe two external reſources, together with the ſale of the remaining national domains,

domains, entirely cover both the internal *deficit*, and the ſum by which the expences of a war exceed thoſe of a peace-eſtabliſhment."

For the detailed evidence by which the author has proved theſe propoſitions, we muſt refer to the work itſelf. In the body of that work the intelligent author recapitulates the expences of the French government during the war of the revolution, and the means by which they were provided for; examines and refutes Mr. Hauterive's aſſertions on that ſubject; diſcuſſes the financial ſyſtem of Bonaparte when Conſul, ſetting forth his expedients for hiding and covering the *deficit* during the years 9, 10, 11, and 12; and gives a ſketch of the revenue of Imperial France, with the cauſes of its decline, and a view of the expences of that government, together with the cauſes that have operated to increaſe them. Various important and ſtriking remarks are intermixed with the main arguments. Among other topics, the author fully juſtifies his predictions concerning the French finances, ſhowing, almoſt to demonſtration, that they muſt have been verified, in every particular, had the allied powers cordially co-operated with each other, and firmly perſevered. His obſervations on the different financial ſyſtems of Great Britain and France, and his compariſon between their reſpective reſources, are peculiarly intereſting; and his contraſt between the ſplendid incomes laviſhed by the French Emperor on his upſtart race, and the very moderate proviſion made for the younger branches of our royal family, ought to ſilence the envious murmurs at the latter, which we have ſometimes heard.

In concluſion, Sir Francis points out the influence which the *deficit* (on the peace-eſtabliſhment) muſt have had on the renewal of the war, and proves from thence that it muſt be conducted in ſuch a manner as to deprive the uſurper of thoſe reſources which he derives from foreign plunder. A ſpirited exhortation to the different continental powers, to embrace this laſt opportunity of aſſerting their independence, concludes this valuable work; which, we truſt, will obtain a celebrity as general as its utility is evident and extenſive.

ART. 28. *A Letter from a Gentleman at Berlin to his Friend in London, occaſioned by the Seizure of Sir George Rumbold; containing a ſuccinct View of the Life and Conduct of Macbeth, and a Tranſlation of Sketches from the Life of Oliver Cromwell, &c. &c.* 8vo. 1s. Budd. 1805.

The author draws a compariſon between the characters of Macbeth and Cromwell and that of Bonaparte, and makes a ſummary application of the hiſtory of theſe regicides to the events of the preſent period. The parallel is certainly very ſtriking, in various inſtances which are ſpecified in this production.

ART. 29. [*A Political and Military Survey.*] 8vo. 79 pp. 2s. 6d. Carpenter. 1805.

"Every politician," ſays this author, "has his own project for the new organization of Europe. His eye in a fine frenzy rolling over the maps, notices not the minute line which frequently forms an important

portant boundary; nor does his wild imagination ſuffer ſpace or conſiderations of local character to arreſt the creation of his new ſyſtem." He then expreſſes his apprehenſion that an imputation of this kind ſhould, by ſome readers, be thought to apply to his own work. We will not characterize, in ſuch ſtrong expreſſions of ridicule, a performance which appears to have been dictated by the beſt motives, and which certainly contains ſome important obſervations; but we think the policy of many meaſures which the author ſuggeſts at leaſt extremely doubtful, and ſome of his ſchemes little leſs than viſionary. After a rambling preface, recommending a meaſure (in our opinion) ſcarcely practicable, for the purpoſe of tranquillizing Ireland, objecting (too ſtrongly, we think) to the continuance of the volunteer ſyſtem, and unneceſſarily as well as unjuſtly attacking the Society for the Suppreſſion of Vice, he enters into his "Political and Military Survey;" and propoſes various meaſures, which he deems expedient to the reſtoration of the political balance. It is impoſſible, in a moderate ſpace, even to enumerate, much more to diſcuſs, the ſeveral propoſals made for the accompliſhment of this deſirable purpoſe. Although we do not entirely agree with the writer in condemning the peace of Amiens, we admit that the rupture of it probably prevented our enemy from maturing the plans he *now* appears to have formed for our deſtruction.

The plan of this author, for augmenting our diſpoſable force, is nearly ſimilar to that which has been adopted; except that he recommends, in conformity with the opinion of many able politicians and officers, the enliſting of men for a limited time. A diſpoſable force of 40,00 infantry and 6,000 cavalry, he thinks neceſſary to give this country its proper weight in Europe. In this opinion few rational politicians will, we conceive, differ from him; but when he diſtributes with a laviſh hand the places and countries which, he preſumes, will be conquered from France, or eaſily reſigned by the powers to which they reſpectively belong, he opens a field of endleſs diſcuſſion. Many of the arrangements propoſed by him appear to us, if practicable at all, very objectionable in point of policy. Though Ruſſia muſt undoubtedly, in a general war, be our chief, and would probably be our moſt diſintereſted ally, he propoſes to limit her aggrandizement on the ſide of Aſia by reſtrictions which muſt deſtroy all confidence. Some of the acceſſions which he ſuggeſts to the Britiſh empire might be expedient; others ſeem to us unneceſſary, and likely (if obtained) to excite univerſal jealouſy. Upon the whole, we have derived more amuſement than inſtruction from this well-meaning but not judicious writer.

MISCELLANIES.

ART. 30. *The Life of Joſeph Prieſtley, LL. D. F. R. S. &c. &c. With critical Obſervations on his Works. By John Corry, Member of the Philological Society in Mancheſter.* 12mo. 112 pp. 4s. Wilks and Co. Birmingham. 1804.

Though the Life here publiſhed is little more than a ſketch, extending to about 50 pages of this ſmall book, the uſual partiality of biography

graphy is not wanting in it. The author appears to consider his hero as a model of wisdom and virtue, though with respect to some of his peculiar opinions, he leaves it doubtful whether he fully adopts the sentiments he records or not.

Dr. Priestley was born, according to this account, within eight miles of Leeds, in March, 1733, and he died, February 6, 1804, not having quite completed his seventy-first year. The last ten years of his life had been passed in America. On the general subject of his character we prefer the sentiments of a friend, whom Mr. C. quotes, to his own. They are these.

"I shall be glad to see a life of Dr. Priestley. Your object is to do good, by giving the public a fair account of the life of a great and useful man. As a philosopher, I highly esteem him, and consider him an honour to his country. I have often regretted that he ever meddled with *politics*, which were foreign to his calling, as an experimental philosopher and chymist; and still more so that he ever meddled with experimental *divinity*, which I am certain he never properly understood.

"Many of the religious world imagine the Doctor to have been a *bad man*, because he had a *bad creed*. But the one is by no means a necessary consequence of the other. I have known very bad men who had a sound creed, and I have certainly known *good* and *useful* men, who held, what I thought, a very bad creed. Dr. Priestley, as far as I ever had an opportunity of knowing, was a strictly honest upright man: and when his outside was so fair, and his life so useful, it would be a most infamous usurpation of the prerogative of God, to judge his heart, or even suspect his motives." P. 87.

This is making the best of the matter, that can be done with fairness; though it seems not to us very possible to justify the violence of his politics, nor that turbulence of his disposition which made it a real happiness to his country to have him removed to a vast distance, during the uneasy periods which followed the explosion of democratic fanaticism and wickedness in France.

ART. 31. *Evening Amusements; or, the Beauty of the Heavens displayed. In which several striking Appearances to be observed on various Evenings in the Heavens, during the Year* 1805, *are described, and several Means are pointed out, by which the Time of Young Persons may be innocently, agreeably, and profitably employed within Doors. Intended to be continued Annually. By William Frend, Esq. M. A. and Fellow of Jesus College, Cambridge.* 12mo. 210 pp. 3s. Mawman. 1805.

The design of this work, to encourage the taste for astronomical studies, and facilitate the approaches to the science, is so truly laudable, that we see the continuation of it with peculiar pleasure; rejoicing also to find the author so very usefully employed. The first volume appeared in 1804 (see Brit. Crit. xxiv. 337) and began to open the subject to young observers; the present supposes that foundation laid, and proceeds in a similar manner to announce the phænomena of the present year. It may be considered, in some respects, as an astronomical almanac, proceeding regularly through the months of the year, and not only pointing out the appearances of the heavenly bodies, fixed and planetary, but giving practical directions, by which the inexperienced

rienced obſerver may be led to aſcertain them for himſelf. Directions are alſo given for dividing circles, and performing ſuch of the more eaſy operations of mathematics, as may be uſeful in theſe purſuits. We have no doubt that any perſon, by daily following the directions of this calendar, may obtain a competent knowledge of the heavenly bodies, and conſequently a ſource of very rational amuſement throughout life. A few plates are given, repreſenting the principal ſtars of a few conſtellations.

ART. 32. *A Deſcription of the Prince of Wales's Iſland, in the Streights of Malacca; with its real and probable Advantages and Sources to recommend it as a Marine Eſtabliſhment. By Sir Home Popham, Knight of the Sovereign Order of Jeruſalem, Captain in the Royal Navy, and Fellow of the Royal Society.* 8vo. Stockdale. 2s. 6d. 1805.

Sir Home Popham, who took great pains to examine the Prince of Wales's Iſland, is of opinion, that it poſſeſſes geographical, military, commercial, and political advantages over every other ſituation in India. He is alſo inclined to believe, that nutmeg, cinnamon, and cloves, would grow there if properly cultivated. This, in caſe of reſtitution of the Eaſtern Iſlands to the Dutch, at any future period, will effectually counteract the monopoly of that people, and reduce the value of their iſlands. The experiment is about to be made, and with every probability of ſucceſs. As the iſland has not yet been fully explored, many trees may grow there which have not yet been fully deſcribed; perhaps the Teak Tree, which muſt be of great importance to England. Sir H. P.'s pamphlet contains many ſagacious obſervations.

ART. 33. *Thoughts on the Conduct and Coronation of Bonaparte.* 8vo. Symonds. 1s. 1805.

The author of this pamphlet gives a ſketch of the life, character, and coronation of Bonaparte, which is written with conſiderable ſpirit, and concludes with an animated wiſh for the reſtoration of the royal family of France.

ART. 34. *Pepin, Uſurper of the French Sceptre, crowned in France in the Year 754, by the Pope. In French, from Velly's Hiſtory of France, with an Engliſh Tranſlation.* 12mo. 16s. Kirby. 1805.

The editor, conceiving the ſituation of Pepin and Bonaparte in many reſpects to reſemble each other, has given this extract from Velly's Hiſtory of France. The reaſons why the Pope was in both inſtances called in to aſſiſt, are certainly much the ſame. If the crown of France ſhall be made hereditary in Bonaparte's family, his will become the fourth royal race of France. Pepin was the firſt who became King of France, otherwiſe than by right of birth.

ART.

ART. 35. *Picture of Worthing; to which is added, an Account of Arundel and Shoreham, with other Parts of the surrounding Country. By John Evans, A.M.* 12mo. 2s. 6d. Arch. 1805.

This is an entertaining little book, and will be useful also to those who may have occasion or curiosity to visit the places described. It would have been more satisfactory if the author had given some idea of the expences of incidental residence at any of these places, on different scales, such as the price of lodgings, what supplies may be relied on for fish, butchers' meat, &c.

ART. 36. *The Manchester Guide, a brief historical Description of the Towns of Manchester and Salford, the public Buildings, and the Charitable and Literary Institutions; illustrated by a Map, exhibiting the Improvements and Additions made since the Year* 1770. 8vo. 5s. Bickerstaff. 1804.

Manchester is every day increasing so much in populousness and commercial importance, that a Manchester Guide, which is at all accurate or perspicuous, must be very desirable to its occasional visitors. This seems, in every respect, to answer the purpose, and may be recommended to those who may not be able to purchase Dr. Aikin's more elaborate publication.

ART. 37. *An Address to Lord Teignmouth, President of the British and Foreign Bible Society, occasioned by his Address to the Clergy of the Church of England. By a Country Clergyman.* 8vo. 1s. Hatchard. 1805.

The pure and simple principle of extending the consolations of religion, by a liberal dissemination of the Sacred Scriptures, is so laudable in itself, and so salutary in its effects, that it is difficult to conceive how it should be made liable to cavil or exception from any description of persons. The writer of this Address, however, founds very strong objections to the Bible Society, on the supposition that this principle may be grosly abused, and that sectarists of various denominations may avail themselves of the opportunity thus offered, to disseminate, under the form of various readings, expositions, and comments, their own particular prejudices and opinions. But surely he might have waited a little, to see whether any such abuses did actually spring up, or were likely to operate to the disadvantage of true religion. He might have presumed that the friends of the established church, who are members of that Society, are both too numerous and too vigilant not to discern, in the first instances, and not immediately to check the very beginnings of such abuse.

With respect to the writer's argument, that there is a standing majority in the committee against the Church of England, if we are rightly informed, it is a rule of the Society that the President, Vice-Presidents, and Treasurer, to the number of ten, are always to be considered *ex officio* as members of the Committee; which leaves a

clear majority in favour of the church. This rule, we underſtand, is in full force, though it has not yet been printed in the papers of the Society. When, therefore, we ſee among the Vice-Preſidents, &c. four of the moſt venerable bench of biſhops, and in the Society at large ſome of the moſt honourable and moſt ſtrenuous friends of our own church, we readily diſmiſs from our minds the apprehenſions which the peruſal of this Addreſs has ſo ſtrong a tendency to excite. We are inclined indeed to ſmile at the ideal terrors which haunt the imagination and agitate the nerves of this rural clergyman; who, under the plain and unexceptionable propoſal of diſſeminating the Scriptures, *in the authorized editions*, in this and foreign countries, diſcovers plots, ſtratagems, conſpiracies, and trains of gunpowder, by which he declares himſelf to be horribly afraid of having *the national eſtabliſhment blown up, clergy and all, into the air.* P. 9.

ART. 38. *The Works of Diogenes. Volume I.* 8vo. 195 pp. Egerton. 1804.

Mr. Diogenes ſeems to have a fluent pen. To what extent he means to continue the volumes of which he here offers the firſt, we do not pretend to gueſs. Unleſs he ſhould meet with ſome diſcouragement in the reluctance of the public to purchaſe, we conceive that his effuſions would be voluminous. The chief part of the preſent is occupied by a comedy, entitled, "Every Day Characters," which is not exactly deſcriptive of it: for ſuch characters as Sir Charles Freeman, and his ſon Albert, certainly do not often occur. The Iriſh ſervant, Lochlin, is Foote's Air-Caſtle in low life. The ſpeeches in the play are clearly not every-day ſpeeches, for they are frequently of a length which few days would be long enough to admit in any great number. This comedy is decorated with the previous accompaniments of "An Addreſs to my Countrymen," an addreſs "to the Dramatic Writers," another "to the Reviewers." A Prologue in Proſe, "to be ſpoken by any performer that has courage to deliver it:" and, at the end, by "a farewell Addreſs to my Readers." Notwithſtanding all theſe efforts, Mr. Diogenes will probably experience the difficulty of attracting the public attention to an anonymous or pſeudonymous author, which is equivalent: and when he ſhall undertake to write under his own name, he will find that uſeful check upon his pen, which will doubtleſs increaſe his merit with his care.

ART. 39. *The new Military Finance; containing the Hiſtory, Pay, and Allowances of the Britiſh Army. By Nathaniel Hood, Lieutenant in the Army.* 12mo. 188 pp. 4s. 6d. Longman and Co. 1804.

However exact this author may be in his view of military finance, he ſeems to have paid but little attention to military œconomy, when he fixed the price of this very ſmall book at 4s. 6d. The curious reader will, however, find in it the pay and half-pay of every perſon attached to the army, and many other particulars which it may be uſeful or deſireable to know.

ART.

ART. 40. *A Father's Gift to his Children: conſiſting of originl Eſſays, Tales, Fables, Reflections, &c. By William Mavor, LL.D Vicar of Hurley, Berks, and Chaplain to the Earl of Moira. Two Volumes.* 12mo. 10s. 6d. Phillips. 1804.

Our General Index preſents a long liſt of works written or compiled by Dr. Mavor, but among them not this, though it appears by the preface to have been publiſhed before. How it eſcaped our notice it is now uſeleſs to enquire: the preſent edition appears, if we miſtake not, with augmentations and improvements. Utility has been invariably the leading object of this author's productions, and it has been purſued with zeal and judgment. The preſent book was written for the improvement of his own children, and is well calculated to perform the ſame ſervice in other families. It conſiſts of ſhort Eſſays, ſo formed as to excite, and in ſome degree to gratify, a taſte for liberal knowledge. We particularly admire thoſe eſſays which are intended to form a familiar introduction to the Linnæan Syſtem of Nature. Theſe are, the 32d on Botany; the 50th of the firſt volume. In the ſecond, Eſſay 5, on Natural Hiſtory; 10, Quadrupeds; 15, Birds; 20, Amphibia; 29, Fiſhes; 38, Inſects; 44, Worms; 45, 50, 51, on other branches of philoſophy; and, 60, termed the Botanical Walk.

Many other of the Eſſays are alſo pleaſing, as well as inſtructive, and ſome poetical. They compriſe indeed all the variety that is ſo attractive in periodical eſſays, but calculated in general to inſtruct and open the youthful mind. The volumes are neatly printed, and contain a vaſt variety of articles.

ART. 41. *Converſations, introducing Poetry, chiefly on Subjects of Natural Hiſtory, for the Uſe of Children and young Perſons. 2 Volumes.* 12mo. 7s. Johnſon. 1805.

The youth of the preſent day are indebted to ſome of the moſt reſpectable talents of their country, frequently and ſucceſsfully exerciſed for their inſtruction and amuſement. A valuable library for young perſons may now be formed from the works, expreſsly written for this excellent and amiable purpoſe, of Dr. Aikin, Mrs. Barbauld, Mrs. Trimmer, Mrs. Weſt, Mrs. Pr. Wakefield, and laſtly Mrs. Smith, not to enumerate many others. To this before us, of Mrs. Smith, we have one objection to make, and that not wholly unimportant; and we are very ſorry that it diſtinguiſhes all the productions of this otherwiſe accompliſhed writer. Why ſhould Mrs. Smith characterize individuals of rank and faſhion, with the moſt diſtorted features of vice and folly? That they have their ſhare of both nobody will preſume to deny, but it is very unfair and extremely miſchievous to inſinuate that they are deſtitute alſo of the virtues which adorn humanity. The nobleſt qualities of the heart are found, and often found, in the moſt exalted characters, and the moſt unwearied diſpoſition to aſſiſt poverty, and reward the humbleſt merit. With this exception, we do not heſitate to recommend Mrs. Smith's work. By directing the attention of young perſons to the ſtudy of natural hiſtory,

the moſt ſolid foundation is laid for the reception of the truths, and the performance of the duties of religion. The poetry interſperſed is, much of it, very beautiful, and well adapted by its ſimplicity to impreſs the youthful heart. We have room only for the following ſpecimen.

"*To a Green Chafer, on a White Roſe.*

You dwell within a lovely bower,
Little Chafer, gold and green,
Neſtling in the faireſt flower,
The roſe of ſnow, the garden's queen.

There you drink the cryſtal dew,
And your ſhurds as emeralds bright;
And corſlet of the ruby's hue
Hide among the petals white.

Your fringed feet may reſt them there,
And there your filmy wings may cloſe;
But do not wound the flower ſo fair
That ſhelters you in ſweet repoſe.

Inſect, be not like him who dares
On Pity's boſom to intrude,
And then that gentle boſom tears
With baſeneſs and ingratitude!"

ART. 42. *A Key to the Pronunciation of Greek, Latin, and Scripture Proper Names; in which the Words are accented and divided into Syllables, exactly as they ought to be pronounced, according to Rules drawn from Analogy and the beſt Uſage. To which are added, terminational Vocabularies of Hebrew, Greek, and Latin proper Names, in which the Words are arranged according to their final Syllables, and claſſed according to their Accents; by which the general Analogy of Pronunciation may be ſeen at one View, and the Accentuation of each Word more eaſily remembered. Concluding with ſome Obſervations on the Greek and Latin Accent and Quantity; with ſome probable Conjectures on the Method of freeing them from Obſcurity and Confuſion, in which they are involved, both by the Ancients and Moderns. The ſecond Edition, with large Additions. By John Walker, Author of the Critical Pronouncing Dictionary, &c. &c.* 8vo. 285 pp. Cadell and Davies. 1804.

Mr. Walker may almoſt be ſaid to have ſpent a life in the ſtudy and teaching of pronunciation. So very elaborate and excellent are the works which he has produced on various parts of this art, that no praiſe nor profit can repay him for the application he muſt continually have beſtowed upon them. His Rhyming Dictionary alone, in which all the words in the Engliſh language are arranged by their terminations, might be conſidered almoſt as a matchleſs inſtance of diligence, had it not had a precurſor in the *Dictionnaire des Rimes* of *Richelet*, in the French language. Few perſons, except thoſe who at ſome time have purſued minute and critical enquiries into the nature of accent and pronunciation, can conceive how very uſeful ſuch an arrangement muſt be in claſſing particular forms, and aſcertaining their general effects, or the exceptions to them.

In

In the preſent edition of this Key the author has adopted and introduced a ſimilar mode of arranging firſt the Greek and Latin proper names; and, ſecondly, thoſe that are ſcriptural. Theſe are what he calls *terminational Vocabularies*, and are very valuable acceſſions to this ſecond edition. The preparatory obſervations to the Eſſay on the Greek and Latin accent and quantity are alſo new. On the whole, though we do not quite agree with the author in his principle of making ſome claſſical names conform to the Engliſh accent, in ſpite of the original nature of their ſyllables, but think that they ought all to be recalled, as ſoon as poſſible, to their native pronunciation; yet we are perfectly of opinion that he has produced a very valuable, and, on many points, a learned book.

His former edition was commended in the Britiſh Critic, vol. xiv. p. 88, and appears to have had a rapid ſale; the preſent, as being much improved, has a ſtill greater right to that diſtinction, which will, we doubt not, be conferred upon it.

ART. 43. *A Letter to a Member of the Society for the Suppreſſion of Vice; in which its Principles and Proceedings are examined and condemned.* 8vo. 64 pp. 2s. Cawthorn. 1805.

This is a pamphlet well written and ſpeciouſly argued, with a great ſhow of temperance and moderation; but on examination it will be found that its arguments are often inconſiſtent, and its objections not always founded in fact. In a long note, the writer particularly expatiates againſt a mode lately taken to ſuppreſs certain bad houſes in the neighbourhood of Leiceſter-ſquare. To this the reply made in the enſuing pamphlet is as ſatisfactory as it is conciſe.

"Before you made thoſe tranſactions the ground of an attack upon, and condemnation of this Society, you were bound to have inquired whether the Society was in any way concerned in them. I can tell you, however, that they had no more concern in theſe tranſactions than yourſelf; and that I imagine they would join you in opinion that the *mode* adopted to remove the nuiſance of a neighbourhood, proverbially infamous, was a highly cenſurable outrage on public decency."

ART. 44. *Hear both Sides! or, a Defence of the Society for the Suppreſſion of Vice; in reply to a Letter to a Member of that Society; in which its Principles and Proceedings are examined and condemned. By a Member of the Society for the Suppreſſion of Vice.* 8vo. 64 pp. 2s. Rivingtons, and Hatchard. 1805.

This is a direct anſwer to the preceding tract, in the form of a Letter from the perſon there addreſſed: and we are of opinion, that whoever ſhall peruſe it with candour, after reading the other, will be convinced that the arguments are fully anſwered, and all the material objections removed. We have produced one very remarkable inſtance in noticing the firſt Letter.

We could wiſh that the Society in queſtion had, like that at Dublin, profeſſed to *diſcourage* vice, rather than to *ſuppreſs* it. By undertaking too much, they have given force to ſome popular objections.

ART.

ART. 45. *A few plain Reaſons, ſhewing why the Society for the Suppreſſion of Vice, has directed its Attention to thoſe criminal Offences which are chiefly committed by the lower Orders of the Community.* 8vo. 22 pp. 1s. Rivingtons, and Hatchard. 1805.

A ſpecific and ſatisfactory anſwer to one of the particular charges alledged in the Letter to a Member, &c. turning chiefly on the more ſcandalous publicity of the offences which are thus brought to the puniſhment of the laws. A great part of this tract is evidently official, from the Society.

ART. 46. *Audi et alteram Partem.—An eaſy Cure for popular Phrenſy, in the theatrical Concerns—having Reference to the indecent Plaudits and exorbitant Recompence beſtowed by the Engliſh Scotch, and Iriſh, on that puerile Performer called the Young Roſcius; thereby tending to diſparage the Merits of the adult Performers; and to manifeſt the Ingratitude of the Britiſh People. By W. P. R. Sold by the Author only, Maiden-Lane, Covent-Garden.* 12mo. 19 pp. 1804.

The title of this Pamphlet does not bely its contents—"Engliſh, Scotch, and Iriſh," are involved in one general miſtake. We have already had occaſion to deliver our ſentiments of the Young Roſcius, and we really are not induced to alter our opinion. As a proof of the ſtyle and argument uſed by this general cenſor of the public opinion, we need only ſubjoin the following extract:—"I take it for a fact that the Roſcius is not ſtrictly Roſcia, or that *Maſter* Betty is *properly* ſo called; and on this ſuppoſition, I could aſk whether, "a *wiſe* and *underſtanding* people would manifeſt ſuch ſolicitude, as the people of the Britiſh Empire *have* manifeſted, to behold the theatrical performances of this boy? or whether the manner of beſtowing their plaudits be conſiſtent with the dignity of ſuch a national body, duly conſidering the occaſion on which they are beſtowed? and laſtly, whether it be not ſtrong evidence of ingratitude?" Unleſs we aſcribe it ſo completely to *phrenzy*, that judgment and recollection be left wholly out of the queſtion; and if ſo, where is the proof of ſuch extraordinary pains in this puerile performer?"—Satis ſuperque.

It has not been often our lot to peruſe a more ill-natured or vindictive publication.

CATHOLIC QUESTION.

ART. 47. *Hibernica trinoda neceſſitas. A Regulation of Tythes, a Proviſion for the Catholic Clergy, and Catholic Emancipation. Thoughts on the foregoing Heads; together with Obſervations on the Opinions of Doctor Patrick Duigenan. By Robert Bellew, Eſq. of the Middle Temple.* 8vo. 112 pp. (imperfect.) 2s. 6d. Ginger. 1803.

This publication, having accidentally been thrown aſide when it came firſt into our hands, claims now to be noticed at a moſt critical period, when the ſubject of it is preſſed on the attention of the legiſlature, and indeed of every one who feels an intereſt in the welfare of his country. The internal civilization, and, what is almoſt ſynonymous, the internal tranquillity of Ireland, are indeed conſiderations of the

the higheſt importance; but whether the unqualified admiſſion of Roman Catholics to political power, which they ſolicit, and which is ſo improperly called *emancipation*, be the means of obtaining the object ſo much deſired, has been queſtioned upon grounds, which the advocates of that meaſure will not eaſily remove. The author before us has attempted this taſk with a moderation, generally ſpeaking, in his language, and an ingenuity in his arguments that undoubtedly claim attention. His propoſal reſpecting tithes, ſo far as it applies to the leaſing of them with the land, and ſettling the amount by an arbitration, may poſſibly be an uſeful and practicable expedient for preventing the diſputes and animoſities which are ſaid to ariſe on that ſubject in Ireland; nor do we conceive that a legiſlative proviſion for the Roman Catholic clergy in that kingdom would, under proper regulations, be found impracticable or dangerous; but his opinion, that tithes ſhould bear the burden of ſuch a proviſion in a greater proportion than the profit rent of land, is, we think, highly objectionable; though our limits will not permit of our entering into the argument. The author, however, who refers to a former work, ſeems at laſt, though reluctantly, to yield to the general ſentiment which oppoſed this favourite meaſure.

On the ſubject of what he calls "Catholic Emancipation," he argues at great length, ſtating the leading tenets of the church of Rome, in order to ſhow that they have not, in a moral or political view, any dangerous tendency, and that "religious tenets have not placed an inſurmountable barrier in the way of that harmony which ſhould ſubſiſt between Catholic and Proteſtant." He gives a ſhort hiſtory of the Pontificate, in order to prove that the cauſes which once rendered its power ſo formidable no longer exiſt. This may, in ſome degree, be true; but if, as the author juſtly obſerves, the Emperor Conſtantine committed an error "fatal to the peace of the Chriſtian community, by making the ſpiritual independent of the temporal power in the ſtate," how are we, ſhould we (as the author propoſes) revive that erroneous ſyſtem, to be ſecured from many, if not all, its miſchievous conſequences?

That the doctrinal errors of the Romiſh Church might be harmleſs as to political effects, would perhaps be true, if the ſpirit which animated that church in many countries (and in none more than Ireland) were, as the author ſuppoſes, extinguiſhed. But the contrary too plainly appears from various proofs, and even from the late publications of their moſt eminent divines; in whoſe writings the ſpirit of aggrandizement, of proſelytiſm, and of hoſtility to the national church, is manifeſt, although it was peculiarly their intereſt at the preſent juncture to conceal them. But on this part of the ſubject, and indeed on the general queſtion, we cannot do better than to refer our readers to the temperate and judicious tract called **Catholic Emancipation*; in which the expediency of the meaſure ſo ſtrongly preſſed by this writer, is very ably combated, and the miſchiefs likely to enſue from it, ſtrikingly pointed out.

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* See Brit. Crit. for Feb. 1805. P. 157.

The

The remaining part of the work before us is employed in obſervations on the opinions of Dr. Duigenan, who, though a powerful, is certainly not always the moſt judicious advocate againſt the Catholic claims; and, by the frequent uſe of intemperate expreſſions, has laid himſelf open to many attacks. The queſtion, however, is not whether the civil broils and maſſacres, ſo frequent in the hiſtory of Ireland, may not have ariſen in part from political, as well as religious motives? But whether there is not, from that hiſtory, ſufficient ground to believe that Proteſtants and Catholics, in *Ireland*, could not poſſibly be brought cordially and peaceably to unite in the participation of political power? An Addreſs to Parliament, which this author propoſes ſhould be ſigned by the Proteſtants, in behalf of the Catholic claims, ſeems to conclude this work. As our copy wants a few pages at the end, we have only ſeen the firſt page of it; which is in very bombaſt and inflated language; and addreſſes the Parliament (improperly called *Imperial*) of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, in terms too nearly reſembling the Addreſſes to the mock *Legiſlators* of France.

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